THE

BRITISH CRITIC,

For FEBRUARY, 1801.

" Primam religioni ſuæ judex patientiam debet, quæ magna pars Juſtitiæ eſt." PLIN. JUN.

The firſt duty of a critic is patience, which is itſelf a principal part of Juſtice.

ART. I. *Voyage in Search of La Pérouſe, performed by Order of the Conſtituent Aſſembly, during the Years* 1791, 1792, 1793, *and* 1794; *and drawn up by M. Labillardiere, Correſpondent of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, Member of the Society of Natural Hiſtory, and One of the Naturaliſts attached to the Expedition. Tranſlated from the French. Illuſtrated with Forty-ſix Plates.* 4to. 2l. 2s. Stockdale. 1800.

ART. II. *An Account of a Voyage in Search of La Pérouſe, undertaken by Order of the Conſtituent Aſſembly of France, and performed in the Years* 1791, 1792, *and* 1793, *in the Recherche and Eſperance Ships of War, under the Command of Rear-Admiral Bruni D'Entrecaſteaux. Tranſlated from the French of M. Labillardiere, Correſpondent of the ci-devant Academy of Sciences, &c. &c. In Two Volumes. Illuſtrated by Engravings, and a Chart, exhibiting the Tracks of the Ships.* 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

THAT the fate of the juſtly celebrated Pérouſe ſhould excite an intereſt and regret among his countrymen, even in the preſent condition of degenerated France, cannot be deemed ex-

extraordinary. The preſent publication, therefore, records the particulars of a Voyage, undertaken for the expreſs purpoſe, and with the authority of the ruling powers of France, to aſcertain whether any remnant of the companions of Pérouſe might ſtill remain among the iſlands they might be ſuppoſed to have viſited; or whether any particular information could, by any means, be obtained of their fate and fortune. Our readers will not fail to remember, that the laſt authentic accounts of Pérouſe were received by his countrymen from the coaſts of New Holland, and through the medium of England. It is a matter alſo of conſiderable pride and honour to Engliſhmen, that the information contained in theſe volumes is ſolely to be aſcribed to the candour and liberality of this country. In the midſt of a war, proſecuted with much inveteracy, the papers, through the means of which theſe volumes were made public, were, from the generous interpoſition of Sir Joſeph Banks, remitted to the hands of the French government.

The track purſued by thoſe who had the conduct of the expedition, the particulars of which are here related, may be eaſily ſuppoſed. Their object muſt neceſſarily and immediately be to explore, in all directions, the ſhores of New Holland. They accordingly proceeded from France to the Brazils and the Cape. Here they appear to have been deluded by ſome miſinformation, which gives occaſion to the compiler of this work to vent a ſpleen againſt Engliſhmen, alike prepoſterous and unjuſt. At the Cape, Admiral D'Entrecaſteaux was informed by two French Captains, that, being at Batavia, Commodore Hunter had informed them, he had ſeen, at the Admiralty Iſlands, ſome natives dreſſed in the uniform of the French navy. But we have never heard this aſſertion confirmed; and it is rendered improbable by what the writer of this work, Labillardiere, ſubſequently remarks. Captain Bligh, who went to the Society Iſlands, to procure the bread-fruit tree, had ſeen Commodore Hunter after he was ſuppoſed to have ſeen the natives of the Admiralty Iſlands in the French uniforms. But it appeared, "that Captain Bligh did not learn from Hunter any thing relating to the depoſitions of the two French Captains." But, ſurely, Governor Hunter would have communicated ſuch information to Captain Bligh, had it been in his power.

From the Cape, and with this impreſſion ſtrong upon their minds, the navigators proceeded to the Iſland of St. Paul, and from thence to Van Diemen's Land. At Cape Van Diemen, they diſcovered a ſtrait, to which they properly gave the name of their leader; and which, in a ſituation where impetuous winds almoſt conſtantly prevail, promiſes to be of con-

conſiderable importance to future navigators. Leaving this place, the voyagers next proceeded to New Caledonia, and from New Caledonia to what are called the Admiralty Iſlands. Theſe laſt were neceſſarily objects of their ſerious regard; for here it was that Commodore Hunter was ſaid to have perceived ſome veſtiges of Pérouſe's unfortunate expedition. Their careful examination of theſe places, however, terminated wholly in diſappointment. From this part of the work, we think it proper to take the following extract.

"At noon, in latitude 5° 43′ 12″ ſouth, and longitude 152° 3′ 26″ eaſt, we ſaw Bougainville Iſland, forming, with the little adjoining iſlands, a bay not leſs than 15,000 toiſes in extent. The General intended to anchor there; but ſhoals obſerved in different points of its entrance, and a ſand-bank near its farther extremity, made him change his reſolution.

"Bougainville Iſland terminates in very low lands, and we ſoon had ſight of the narrow channel which ſeparates it from Bouka Iſland.

"After ſtanding off, we lay to all night.

"The heat of the day had accumulated the materials of thunder above the high mountains. Frequent flaſhes of lightning diſcovered to us their ſummits, and the thunder rattled with a tremendous noiſe.

"During the night the current had carried us more than twenty minutes towards the north. At ſix in the morning we were 5,000 toiſes to the northward of Bouka Iſland. The vaſt plantations of cocoa-nut trees which adorned its ſhores, indicated a numerous population.

"A canoe, with nine natives on board, put off, and ſteered towards us. We immediately hove to in order to receive them; but they ſtopped within three hundred toiſes of the ſhip, and ſhowing us their iſland, made ſigns to invite us on ſhore. There were but ſeven paddles in the canoe; two other natives ſeemed wholly occupied in baling out the water, which beat over the ſides of the canoe, and in obſerving our movements.

"A native put off alone from the breach, on a *catimarran*, and paddling with the greateſt celerity, came and joined the canoe, which kept always to the windward of us. Though a very old man, he appeared to be ſtill very robuſt. After having viewed us for ſome minutes, he plied towards the iſland, as rapidly as he had come off. He appeared to be a meſſenger diſpatched by the inhabitants, to make his obſervations, and to report to them what he had ſeen.

"The canoe left us, and proceeded towards the Eſperance, another very large one having been already alongſide of her.

"We ſaw at ſome diſtance a ſmall canoe, manned by five natives, who came a-ſtern of our ſhip, and kept at the diſtance of about 500 toiſes, notwithſtanding all our invitations to them to come on board.

"In hopes of alluring thoſe ſavages, we let down into the water a plank, with ſome knives and nails upon it, and a bit of ſcarlet ſtuff by way of a flag, tied to a ſtick placed upright in its centre. They did not, however, ſeize upon thoſe objects, till we cut the ſtring which kept it nearer to the ſhip than they choſe to venture. The ſight of

the bit of ſtuff diffuſed among them the moſt lively joy: they ſhowed us that they had accepted of our preſent, and earneſtly deſired more of the ſame ſort.

" At laſt, by throwing them handkerchiefs, bits of red ſtuff, and empty bottles, we ſucceeded in bringing them alongſide. One of the bottles having taken in ſome ſea-water, the ſavage who took it up, thinking perhaps that we had ſent him ſomething good to drink, was diſagreeably miſtaken on taſting the contrary, and we regretted that we had not given him timely notice of the circumſtance.

" Thoſe natives were acquainted with the method of barter, and took much pains to ſhew us the price of their goods.

" We received a very fine bow and ſome arrows, in exchange for a few handkerchiefs, which we let down to them by a rope. As they did not obſerve that we poſſeſſed this kind of weapon, they endeavoured to make us ſenſible of its value, by ſhowing us its uſe.

" One of the gunners went for his fiddle, and played them ſome tunes; and we had the pleaſure to ſee that they were not inſenſible to muſic. They offered us a number of things in exchange for the inſtrument, making ſigns for it, by imitating the motions of the fiddler upon a paddle. But they ſoon found that their ſolicitations were fruitleſs. It was the only fiddle by which the ſhip's company danced; and we had too long a voyage before us, to think of parting with the inſtrument, which procured us an exerciſe ſo ſalutary to ſeamen.

" We had ſo loaded them with preſents, that they ſoon began to make difficulties in giving their commodities in exchange for ours, to procure which they had recourſe to unfair arts. The Commander had agreed to give them ſome handkerchiefs ſtriped with red, their favourite colour, for a bow, and truſting too much to their good faith, had delivered them the handkerchiefs: but inſtead of the bow, they would only give ſome arrows, which were refuſed.

" Thoſe natives ſeemed to have a great propenſity to gaiety. They ſeemed to take pleaſure in repeating the words which they heard us pronounce; and the ſweetneſs of their languge enabled them eaſily to ſucceed in the imitation.

" They were paſſionately fond of muſic, and particularly of the moſt briſk and noiſy tunes. One of the officers, who was a good performer, played a very lively tune. They liſtened with very great attention; aſtoniſhment was viſible in their features; they could not conceal the pleaſure they felt; but, by different motions of their arms, which kept exact time with the meaſure, and a great agitation of the whole body, they gave unequivocal proofs of their ſenſibility.

" They did not loſe ſight of the deſire which the Commander had expreſſed for a bow. One of them promiſed him a bow in exchange for a hat; but when he got poſſeſſion of the hat, he refuſed to ſurrender the bow.

" Moſt of the things which we gave them were tied to the end of a line, which they were not at the pains to looſe; for they carried in their girdles ſhells which were ſufficiently ſharp to cut it at once.

" As we had good reaſon to diſtruſt their promiſes, a man went down by a rope-ladder aſtern, with a view to exchange a bit of red ſtuff for a bow, when we perceived that the current had carried us to

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the north-weſt, and that we were already too near the ſhore. As a calm prevented us from ſteering the ſhip, we were obliged to put out a boat to tow her off. The ſavages thinking, no doubt, that we intended to purſue them, in order to puniſh them for their diſhoneſty, retreated precipitately towards the iſland. Out of gratitude, perhaps, for the patience with which we allowed them to cheat us, they committed no ſuch act of treachery as General Bougainville, in his voyage round the world, had experienced at their hands.

" Four canoes were, all this while, dealing with the Eſperance. One of them was manned by natives, of whom ſixteen were paddlers, and the reſt warriors.

" We learned from the people on board the Eſperance, that this war-canoe had long kept at a diſtance; but ventured to come alongſide, on ſeeing the different articles which their countrymen in the little canoes had procured.

" The order with which the ſavages were ſtationed in the great canoe, indicated a kind of naval tactics. A warrior, armed with a bow and arrows, ſtood between every two paddles on each ſide, and intermediate parties of two or three warriors ſtood with their faces towards the ſtern of the canoe, in order to obſerve the movements in that direction, and to fight while retreating. Thoſe warriors ſhowed no hoſtile diſpoſition; they ſeemed very fond of the wine and brandy which was given to them, but did not eat bacon without a degree of repugnance.

" Thoſe ſavages had excellent teeth, and found no difficulty in maſticating the hardeſt biſcuits that were offered to them.

" Could thoſe natives have had any communication with the Engliſh and the Spaniards? One of them, on ſhowing us an arrow, which he was going to tie to the end of one of our ſtrings to convey it on board, pronounced very diſtinctly the Engliſh word *arrow*. Another, ſhowing us the land, and inviting us to it, made uſe of the Spaniſh word *tierra*.

" We learned from the Eſperance, that ſeveral of them pronounced the word *Bouka*, the name which General Bougainville gave to their iſland. This word, which in the Malayan language is the expreſſion of negation, and which, when the firſt ſyllable is pronounced long, ſignifies *to open*, doubtleſs ſeems to indicate ſome analogy with the Malayan; from which, however, it differs ſo much, that one of the ſhip's company, who ſpoke the language fluently, could not underſtand thoſe natives.

" The value which they ſeemed to affix to nails, and the other articles of hardware which we gave them, ſhowed that they were acquainted with the uſe of iron.

" The colour of their ſkins is blackiſh. They are of a middling ſtature; and being naked, their diſtinctly marked muſcles indicated great ſtrength. Their figure, though not very agreeable, is extremely expreſſive. Their heads are very big; their foreheads broad, like the reſt of their faces, which are very flat, eſpecially under the noſe; their chins large and prominent; their cheeks full, their noſes flat, their mouths very large, and their lips very thin.

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" The betel, which gives a bloody tint to their large mouths, adds to the uglineſs of their appearance.

" Their ears are loaded with large rings made of ſhells, the weight of which contributed to the large ſize of thoſe organs. Some had red and white ſtreaks traced upon their bodies; and we obſerved one whoſe hair and noſe were ſprinkled with a red earth, which appeared to be ochre. Some had bracelets formed of the fibres of the cocoa-nut huſk.

" Their hair was curled, thick and bulky, like that of many Papows, whom we afterwards met with.

" They are in the practice of plucking the hair from every part of the body. There was but one ſeen, on board the Eſperance, who allowed his beard to grow.

" All of them had their loins girded with a cord, which went ſeveral times about the body, and ſeemed only deſigned as a point of ſupport, to increaſe the muſcular ſtrength of thoſe parts. One of them, probably with a ſimilar view, had his left arm tied in three different places, over the biceps muſcle; ſome flat bits of wood, on the outſide of the arm, ſupported the ſtrain of the cord.

" Thoſe ſavages appeared to handle the bow with much addreſs. One of them brought on board the Eſperance a booby, which he had brought down with an arrow; and the fatal wound was ſeen in the belly of the bird.

" The induſtry of thoſe iſlanders ſeemed to be particularly directed to the fabrication of their arms, which were formed with great care. We admired the ſkill with which they had coated their bow-ſtrings with a reſinous ſubſtance, which gave them, at firſt ſight, the appearance of cat-gut. The middle of the ſtring was done round with bark, in order to ſave it from wear, by giving the impulſe to the arrow. The inferior part of the arrows was very light, being formed of the ſtalk of the *ſaccharum ſpontaneum*; and the other part conſiſted of very hard wood, well pointed. The joining is ingeniouſly faſtened with about thirty turns of bark, as is alſo the part of the arrow which bears upon the ſtring, to give it the greater ſolidity.

" Their canoes, formed of ſeveral planks, ingeniouſly joined together, are of a ſhape at once elegant, and adapted for a quick motion." P. 154.

From the numerous group of iſlands, comprehending Bougainville's Iſland, the Admiralty Iſlands, &c. &c. the voyagers proceeded to New Guinea, and finally anchored at Amboyna. The whole of the eighth Chapter, which we think the moſt entertaining part of the work, is occupied with deſcribing excurſions into the interior of the iſland; an account of the Sago Palm, which is curious and intereſting; the natives of Amboyna, their dreſs, manners, with a variety of important obſervations. This is, on the whole, the beſt account of Amboyna we remember ever to have ſeen, not excepting that of Stavorinus, of which, on a recent occaſion, we ſpoke with praiſe. Leaving Amboyna, the navigators explored the ſouth-weſt coaſt of New Holland; and ranging

ranging along its ſhores came a ſecond time to Cape Van Diemen. The naturaliſts diſcovered, at Legrand's Bay, a new ſpecies of ſwan, and a marine ſalt, upwards of two hundred meters in perpendicular height. The tenth Chapter excites conſiderable intereſt. It gives an agreeable account of the interior parts of the country, of various trees peculiar to New Holland, of the natives and their manners. Theſe latter are ſo curious as to juſtify another extract.

"About noon we ſaw them prepare their repaſt. Hitherto we had but a faint idea of the pains the women take to procure the food requiſite for the ſubſiſtence of their families. They took each a baſket, and were followed by their daughters, who did the ſame. Getting on the rocks, that projected into the ſea, they plunged from them to the bottom in ſearch of ſhell-fiſh. When they had been down ſome time, we became very uneaſy on their account; for where they had dived were ſea-weeds of great length, among which we obſerved the *fucus pyriferus*, and we feared that they might have been entangled in theſe, ſo as to be unable to regain the ſurface. At length however they appeared, and convinced us that they were capable of remaining under water twice as long as our ableſt divers. An inſtant was ſufficient for them to take breath, and then they dived again. This they did repeatedly, till their baſkets were nearly full. Moſt of them were provided with a little bit of wood, cut into the ſhape of a ſpatula, of which I ſpoke above; and with theſe they ſeparated, from beneath the rocks, at great depths, very large ſea-ears. Perhaps they chooſe the biggeſt, for all they brought were of a great ſize.

"On ſeeing the large lobſters, which they had in their baſkets, we were afraid that they muſt have wounded thoſe poor women terribly with their large claws; but we ſoon found, that they had taken the precaution to kill them as ſoon as they caught them. They quitted the water only to bring their huſbands the fruits of their labour; and frequently returned almoſt immediately to their diving, till they had procured a ſufficient meal for their families. At other times they ſtaid a little while to warm themſelves, with their faces towards the fire on which their fiſh was roaſting, and other little fires burning behind them, that they might be warmed on all ſides at once.

"It ſeemed as if they were unwilling to loſe a moment's time, for while they were warming themſelves, they were employed in roaſting fiſh; ſome of which they laid on the coals with the utmoſt caution: though they took little care of the lobſters, which they threw any where into the fire, and when they were ready, they divided the claws among the men and children, reſerving the body for themſelves, which they ſometimes ate before they returned into the water.

"It gave us great pain to ſee theſe poor women condemned to ſuch ſevere toil: while, at the ſame time, they ran the hazard of being devoured by ſharks, or entangled among the weeds that riſe from the bottom of the ſea. We often intreated their huſbands to take a ſhare in their labour at leaſt, but always in vain. They remained conſtantly near the fire, feaſting on the beſt bits, and eating broiled fucus, or fern-

fern-roots. Occaſionally they took the trouble to break boughs of trees into ſhort pieces, to feed the fire, taking care to chooſe the drieſt. From their manner of breaking them, we found that their ſkulls muſt be very hard; for, taking hold of the ſticks at each end with the hand, they bent them over their heads, as we do at the knee, till they broke. Their heads being conſtantly bare, and often expoſed to all weathers, in this high latitude, acquire a capacity of reſiſting ſuch efforts: beſides, their hair forms a cuſhion, which diminiſhes the preſſure, and renders it much leſs painful on the ſummit of the head, than on any other part of the body. Few of the women, however, could have done as much; for ſome had their hair cut pretty ſhort, and wore a ſtring ſeveral times round the head, others had only a ſimple crown of hair. We made the ſame obſervation with reſpect to ſeveral of the children, but none of the men. Theſe had the back, breaſt, ſhoulders, and arms, covered with downy hair.

"Two of the ſtouteſt of the party were ſitting in the midſt of their children, and each had two women by his ſide. They informed us by ſigns, that theſe were their wives, and gave us a freſh proof that polygamy is eſtabliſhed among them. The other women, who had only one huſband, were equally careful to let us know it. It would be difficult to ſay which are the happieſt; as the moſt laborious of their domeſtic occupations devolve upon them, the former had the advantage of a partner in them, which perhaps might ſufficiently compenſate their having only a ſhare in their huſband's affections.

"Their meal had continued a long time, and we were much ſurprized that not one of them had yet drank; but this they deferred, till they were fully ſatisfied with eating. The women and girls then went to fetch water with the veſſels of ſea-weed, of which I have already ſpoken, getting it at the firſt place they came to, and ſetting it down by the men, who drank it without ceremony, though it was very muddy and ſtagnant. Then they finiſhed their repaſt.

"When we returned towards Port Dentrecaſteux, moſt of the ſavages accompanied us; and before they left us, they gave us to underſtand, that, in two days, by proceeding along the ſhore, they ſhould be very near our ſhips. To inform us that they ſhould make this journey in two days, they pointed out with their hands the diurnal motion of the ſun, and expreſſed the number two by as many of their fingers.

"When we re-embarked to go on board, theſe good people followed us with their eyes for ſome time, before they left the ſhore, and then they diſappeared in the woods. Their way brought them at times to the ſhore again, of which we were immediately informed by the cries of joy, with which they made the air reſound. Theſe teſtimonies of pleaſure did not ceaſe, till we loſt ſight of them from the diſtance.

"During the whole time we ſpent with them, nothing appeared to indicate that they had any chiefs. Each family, on the contrary, ſeemed to us to live in perfect independence; though we obſerved in the children the greateſt ſubordination to their parents, and in the women the ſame to their huſbands. It appeared, that the women were careful to avoid giving their huſbands any occaſion for jealouſy: though, when we returned on board, one of the crew boaſted of the favours he had received from one of the beauties of Cape Diemen; but

but it is difficult to ſay how far his ſtory was founded on truth." P. 312.

A ſecond time the voyagers paſſed through D'Entrecaſteaux's Strait, anchored in Adventure Bay, proceeded to the northward of New Zealand, and came to Tongataboo, one of the Friendly Iſlands. The manners of the people there are well deſcribed; but theſe are now familiar to every reader. Leaving Tongataboo, they diſcovered a new iſland on their way to New Caledonia, to which they gave the name of Iſle de Beaupre. They deſcribe the natives of New Caledonia as remarkably bold and daring, and as cannibals. One of their articles of food is a new ſpecies of ſpider.

Leaving New Caledonia, they proceeded in a northerly direction till they came to Santa Cruz, or Egmont Iſland, which place, with its inhabitants, is deſcribed. Having explored a part of Solomon's Archipelago, the north coaſt of La Louiſiade, they paſſed through Dampier's Strait, to examine the north coaſt of New Britain. Here they loſt their Admiral. Hence again proceeding to Waygiou, an iſland near Pitt's Strait, they finally came to Batavia. At this place they were detained on account of the war; and, melancholy to tell, loſt the greater part of their crews. The ſurvivors were variouſly diſperſed, and it is greatly to be feared, that but a very few ever have found their way back again to their native country.

Thus ended this diſaſtrous enterpriſe; honourable indeed to both countries, but particularly to this; by whoſe generoſity the papers and collections of the Voyage were communicated to France. It will ſtrike every obſerver, as no creditable feature in the preſent national character of our adverſaries, that the naturaliſts and men of ſcience who accompanied the expedition, were, on all occaſions, treated with the moſt marked negligence and contempt. They were denied the comforts, and often the neceſſaries which the reſt of the crew had in common. With reſpect to the tranſlations before us, both are undoubtedly entitled to praiſe. That publiſhed for Stockdale appears, on the whole, to be the beſt; while, on the other hand, the chart and plates which accompany Debrett's publication, are ſuperior to thoſe in the other work. We think, however, that the Voyage itſelf does not much increaſe our ſtores of knowledge; nor, except in that part which deſcribes the manners of Amboyna, does it afford any great degree of entertainment.

ART. III. *Indian Antiquities: or, Diſſertations, relative to the ancient geographical Diviſions, the pure Syſtem of primeval Theology, the grand Code of Civil Laws, the original Form of Government, the widely-extended Commerce, and the various and profound Literature, of Hindoſtan: compared, throughout, with the Religion, Laws, Government, and Literature, of Perſia, Egypt, and Greece. The whole intended as Introductory to, and Illuſtrative of, the Hiſtory of Hindoſtan, upon a comprehenſive Scale. Volume VII. and Final.* 8vo. 9s. White. 1800.

THROUGHOUT the whole of this extenſive inveſtigation into the antiquities of India, and of the great empires of Aſia connected with it, we have uniformly endeavoured to do juſtice to the views and plan of the author in undertaking it; and a regular and correct analyſis, as well of his Indian Hiſtory, as of the preſent work, will be found in our preceding volumes. We applaud the induſtry and perſeverance that have enabled him to complete them; and it is no ſmall gratification to us, to find the voice of public approbation ſo decidedly ſanctioning the opinion, which, at the very commencement of our labours, we ventured to give concerning the utility, and, indeed, the neceſſity of ſuch a publication, in times like the preſent, to counteract thoſe principles, which it is the conſtant endeavour of infidelity to found upon perverted repreſentations of eaſtern hiſtory and mythology.

To fill up the outlines which Mr. Maurice had ſketched for the conduct of this now voluminous work, a diſſertation on the literature, and the arts and ſciences anciently flouriſhing in India, and another on the juriſprudence of that country, were wanting. With theſe, and with another curious diſſertation on the treaſures in bullion and coined money, amaſſed in the ancient world, the public are here preſented; and Mr. M.'s own account of the plan purſued by him in diſcuſſing thoſe ſubjects, will perhaps be the beſt introduction the reader can have to the ſtrictures contained in the volume. It is dedicated to two gentlemen, who ſtand deſervedly high in the line of their profeſſion, Mr. Plumer and Mr. Dallas, to whom the author acknowledges to have been under conſiderable obligations at his entrance upon the field of Oriental literature. In apology for engaging at all in *legal diſcuſſion*, Mr. M. urges, that a Diſſertation on Indian Juriſprudence formed a part of his original propoſals, publiſhed long before Sir William Jones had favoured the learned

world with the tranſlation of Menu's Inſtitutes, which is now in the hands of moſt profeſſional men.

"Though that circumſtance," he adds, "has enabled me greatly to curtail my diſquiſitions on that curious head of Indian literature, yet it by no means releaſes me from the obligation I am under to the general claſs of my readers, who may not be in poſſeſſion of the work in queſtion. The conciſe obſervations which I have ventured to offer on the legiſlatue of India and that ſingular code, compoſed of ſuch heterogeneous ingredients, that jargon (for ſo I muſt call it) of deſpotiſm to men and benevolence to brutes, of ſenſe and abſurdity, of the ſublime and the puerile, are the reſult of conſiderable attention to the ſubject, founded partly on what I have been able to collect from ancient claſſical writers, and partly from the few genuine Hindoo documents as yet in our poſſeſſion."

Mr. M. then proceeds to explain himſelf on the other topics diſcuſſed in this curious final volume of his Antiquities, and cloſes the Dedication in the following manner:

"The legal Diſſertation, though the laſt in order of thoſe that occupy the pages of this final volume, I have introduced firſt and more particularly to your notice, Gentlemen, becauſe it is the one in which you will probably find yourſelves moſt intereſted. It contains two others, intimately connected with Indian commerce and literature, to which I beg permiſſion to make theſe dedicatory pages ſomewhat introductory.

"When the Arabian chiefs, in the ſeventh century of the Chriſtian æra, poured their myriads into the plains of Hindoſtan, they found there ſuch ſuperabundant wealth, the tribute of all nations for innumerable ages, as occaſioned the writers of that country to invent the romantic fiction that, among other rarities peculiar to India, a tree was diſcovered there of pure gold*, and of enormous ſize, ſpringing naturally out of the ſoil, thus realizing Milton's fable of the vegetable gold that grew in the delightful paradiſe of his fancy. According to writers, however, hereafter referred to, of ſomewhat better authenticity than thoſe fablers, nothing could equal, in the ancient periods that preceded their irruption, the aſtoniſhing magnificence diſplayed in the pagodas. The lofty roofs and columns of thoſe ſtupendous edifices are reported to have been entirely covered with that beautiful metal; the high-raiſed altars blazed with a profuſion of gems; the breaſts and veſtures of their monſtrous idols were covered with ſtrings of the loveliеſt pearl, while their eyes ſparkled with the borrowed luſtre of emeralds and rubies. I thought it could not fail of being peculiarly intereſting to that very large and reſpectable portion of my readers who are commercially connected with India, to trace to their ſource, in the vaſt, but now probably exhauſted, mines of Africa and Aſia, the ſtreams of that amazing wealth, by way of appendix to the Diſſertation on the ancient commerce of India in the ſixth volume of theſe

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"* See Orme's Hindoſtan, vol. i. p. 9."

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Antiquities. The picture, it muſt be owned, is extremely gaudy and magnificent, but I truſt it is not overcharged.

" The arts and ſciences of India, which I have conſidered under the general head of its literature, were carried, in periods of the moſt remote antiquity, to ſo high a point of excellence as opens to the European ſcholar an immenſe field for reflection. In this inſtance alſo I have endeavoured to do the ancient Indians ſtrict juſtice without exaggeration; but, on ſome points principally relating to their unparalleled advance in mechanical ſcience, conſiderable difficulties ariſing, and there being ſuch a deficiency of written materials in Europe for proving the points contended for; to ſubſtantiate thoſe points I have had recourſe to the following plan of inveſtigation and deciſion, in which, if my author Sir William Jones was, as I have every reaſon to think, correct in his original poſitions, I could ſcarcely fail of being alſo correct in my deductions.

" By a train of forcible arguments, ſtrengthened by an ingenious aſtronomical calculation, that equally zealous and judicious explorer into the genuine antiquities of Aſia has fixed the period of the firſt promulgation of Menu's Inſtitutes to that of the eſtabliſhment of the firſt monarchies in Egypt and Aſia, which could not have taken place many ages poſterior to the deluge; and their firſt publication, as a code of written laws, to about the year 1280 before Chriſt. Now when we read in that code of the *engraving and piercing of gems*, and particularly *of diamonds*, an art only recently known in Europe, we know they muſt neceſſarily have had the uſe of thoſe fine ſteel inſtruments without which that operation could not poſſibly have been performed, and conſequently that they muſt have been very excellent metallurgiſts as early after the deluge as can well be conceived. Again, when, in the ſame book, we read of a particular *caſt*, or claſs, whoſe ſole occupation it is to attend *ſilk-worms*, we can aſcertain, however diſputed in favour of the Chineſe at a later date, the very early period when ſilk-weaving flouriſhed in India. To the ſame deciſion we are irreſiſtibly led in reſpect to the art of making pottery and porcelain, which induced me to conclude that the ancient Murrhins were not cryſtal or agate, but a fine kind of porcelain, and I rejoice to find that ſo good a judge of the ſubject as Dr. Vincent confirms the fact contended for*. A variety of ſimilar proofs may be brought of their having been, in thoſe ancient periods, good *chemiſts*, *aſtronomers*, *architects*, *geometricians*, and even *anatomiſts*, an aſſertion ſo often and ſtrenuouſly denied; and, for theſe proofs, I refer the reader to the parts of the Diſſertation that relate to thoſe facts.

" Such, Gentlemen, is the ſpecies of entertainment which I have endeavoured gratefully to provide for yourſelves and the indulgent public in the preſent volume of Indian Antiquities; and, while I take a final adieu of a ſubject that has engroſſed ſome years of my life, moſt fervently do I hope that my humble eſſays may only be the forerunner

* An ingenious Frenchman, however, in the *Mem. de l'Inſtit. Literature*, tom. ii. p. 133, contends, and ſeems to prove, that it was a ſpecies of Chalcedony, called in French *Giraſol*, or *cachelong*. *Rev.*

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of ſome grander effort more fully and effectually to diſplay them, ſince my mind is eternally impreſſed with the conviction from which, indeed, I have uniformly acted, that every additional reſearch into their early annals and hiſtory will ultimately tend (not to weaken and ſubvert, as the ſceptic vainly preſumes, but) to ſtrengthen and ſupport the Moſaic and Chriſtian codes, and, conſequently, the higheſt and beſt intereſts of MAN."

The Diſſertation on the treaſures amaſſed, in gold and ſilver bullion, and in coined money, in the ancient world, and particularly in India, the reſult of its vaſt commerce in every age, exhibits an aſtoniſhing diſplay of wealth; and the golden current is traced down, by various channels, from Sofala, one great ſource of the riches of Tyre and Sidon, through Lydia, Babylon, and Judea, firſt into the overflowing treaſury of the all-conquering Alexander, and his Greek captains; and then into the prodigious vortex of Rome, flouriſhing in the zenith of its power, its rapacity, and its luxury. The account of the effect which the accumulation of wealth that ſucceeded the conqueſt, by Cyrus, of the Lydian and Babylonian empires had on the Perſian character, and the conſequent magnificence aſſumed by the princes, his ſucceſſors, is given in the warm and vivid colouring, not unuſual in the pages of this writer. It contains the ſubſtance of what has been delivered on this head by the claſſical writers of antiquity, and is as follows:

"Never was there a more ſudden change effected in the manners of a nation than that which took place in Perſia, after the conqueſt of Babylon. The honourable indigence, the ſtrict regimen, and laborious exerciſes, in which from infancy they had been trained, were now ſucceeded by an oſtentatious magnificence, a luxurious diet, and an indolent effeminacy. With the wealth, they caught the habits of the Lydians, and wallowed in all that unbounded voluptuouſneſs for which the former are branded in the page of hiſtory. During the life of Cyrus, indeed, his example and authority kept up in the army ſome remains of the ancient diſcipline; but the princes and nobles delighted rather to follow the example of Crœſus, and were plunged in exceſſes of every kind. The ſucceſſors of Cyrus on the throne of Perſia ſeemed to think the dignity of that throne was better ſupported by ſplendor than virtue, and aimed to ſecure the abject obedience of their ſubjects, by dazzling them with a glory that ſeemed more than human; ſo devoted indeed were they to the ſhameleſs gratification, at any price, of their licentious and ſtimulated appetites, and ſo far had they exhauſted every ſource of known terreſtrial enjoyment, that one of them, it is well known, was not aſhamed, by a public edict, to offer a ſplendid reward to any perſon who ſhould invent a new pleaſure.

"Ancient writers ſpeak with rapture of the beauty of imperial Suſa, and the magnificence of its ſumptuous palace, ſo highly diſtinguiſhed,

guiſhed, as to have been the reſidence, during three months of the year, that is, during the ſpring ſeaſon, of the great Shah-in-Shah, as Ecbatana was, during the ſummer. The walls and ceilings of this palace were overlaid with gold, ivory, and amber, exhibiting the nobleſt deſigns, wrought in the moſt exquiſite taſte. Its lofty throne of pure gold was raiſed on pillars refulgent with jewels of the richeſt luſtre. The monarch's bed, alſo of pure gold, we have already noticed, as ſhaded with the golden plane-tree and vine preſented by Pythias, on whoſe branches hung cluſters of emeralds and rubies. He repoſed his head on a caſket containing five thouſand talents of gold, which was called *the king's bolſter*; and his feet reſted on another, containing three thouſand talents of the ſame metal. Every province of his vaſt empire daily furniſhed one diſh, loaded with the richeſt rarities produced in it. He drank no water, but the pure cold wave of the Choaſpes, carried with him in ſilver veſſels, whitherſoever he went. His bread was made of the fineſt wheat in Phrygia; Egypt ſupplied him with ſalt; the rich high-flavoured wines of Damaſcus alone ſparkled in his cup; the ſofteſt, ſweeteſt melodies ſoothed him during the banquet; and the loveliеſt women of Aſia beguiled his hours of domeſtic retirement. When he marched to battle, the pomp of the proceſſion was to the laſt degree ſplendid and ſolemn; and has been minutely deſcribed by Herodotus, Arrian, and Curtius; of whoſe various relations the following is the reſult.

"It commenced the moment the ſun appeared above the horizon. At that inſtant, a trumpet, ſounding from the king's pavilion, proclaimed the appearance of its beam, and a golden image of its orb, incloſed in a cycle of cryſtal, was diſplayed on high in the front of that pavilion. The Perſian banner, which was a golden eagle, the eagle of the ſun, with its wings expanded, being alſo elevated, a body of Magi carrying on ſilver altars the ſacred and eternal fire, believed to have deſcended from heaven, advanced firſt. Then followed another band of Magi, chanting hymns in honour of the ſun; and 365 youths, to repreſent the number of the days of the reformed year, clothed in flame-coloured veſts, and bearing a golden rod, the ſymbol of his ray. After theſe, marched a large body of horſe and men, bearing ſpears with their points downward. Ten conſecrated horſes, of ſurpaſſing magnitude, bred on the Niſæan plains, and capariſoned with furniture that glittered all over with gold and gems, preceded the chariot of the ſun (for ſuch it was, though called by Herodotus that of Jupiter) empty, and drawn by eight white horſes, the equerries attending them clothed in white veſts, and alſo bearing in their hands golden wands. Next came the Perſian band, called *immortal*, ten thouſand in number, all wearing collars of pure gold, and arrayed in robes of gold tiſſue. Next came the male relations of the ſovereign, habited in purple veſts, fringed with precious ſtones and pearl. The king followed immediately after, in a chariot drawn by Niſæan horſes, a living mine of gold and rubies, and darting from his own perſon a glory ſcarcely leſs reſplendent than that of the ſun, whom he repreſented. He appeared ſeated on a throne, elevated above the chariot that bore him, and ſuſtained by coloſſal figures of the Genii of the Perſian mythology, caſt in pure gold. The chariot was of gold, and from the centre of the beam,

beam, that glittered with jewels, roſe two ſtatues of pure gold, each a cubit in height, the one repreſenting PEACE, the other WAR; over whoſe heads a golden eagle, the banner of Perſia, ſpread its wings, as if to ſanction the choice of the nations, whether hoſtile or pacific. Two thouſand choſen horſe, the king's body-guard, followed the royal car; ſucceeded by twenty thouſand foot, armed with javelins decked with pomegranates of gold and ſilver. Ten thouſand horſe brought up the rear of the army of native Perſians. The reſt of the innumerable hoſt followed at a diſtance, in ſeparate diviſions, according to the nations which they reſpectively repreſented.

"The citadel of Suſa is ſaid to have been the great treaſure-houſe of the kingdom: in it the ancient records of the Perſian empire, from its foundation, were preſerved. We are informed, by Diodorus, that Alexander carried away from this plundered capital no leſs than nine thouſand talents of coined gold, and of gold and ſilver bullion forty thouſand talents*. It muſt, however, have been in the more ancient periods of the empire that Suſa was the chief treaſury; becauſe, great as this ſum appears, it is comparatively trifling to what, according to the ſame author, that inſatiable plunderer of the wealth of Aſia found at Perſepolis, which amounted to ſuch an enormous ſum, that, beſides three thouſand camels which were loaded with it, all the adjoining countries were drained of their mules, aſſes, and other beaſts of burthen, to convey it away from a city, on which he wreaked his particular and unrelenting vengeance, in return for the impolitic burning of the Grecian temples by Xerxes†. The total aggregate, in bullion, obtained at Perſepolis, Diodorus ſtates at one hundred and twenty thouſand talents of gold, independent of the precious gems, the coſtly furniture, the veſſels of chryſtal and agate, the veſts of Tyrian purple and gold embroidery, found in profuſion in the houſes of the Perſian nobles and merchants. At the taking of Damaſcus, after the battle of Iſſus, he found in the royal coffers two thouſand ſix hundred talents, in coined money, and five hundred in bullion, and with the other treaſures, taken in that wealthy city, loaded ſeven thouſand mules. Ten thouſand talents, at one time, and thirty thouſand at another, were the ſums offered by Darius to Alexander, as the ranſom of his captive wife and daughters. The battle of Arbela put him in poſſeſſion of all the coſtly utenſils and ſplendid equipages of Darius, with four thouſand talents in money. In Paſargada he found ſix thouſand talents; and, in the royal city of Ecbatana, according to Strabo‡, no leſs than one hundred and eighty thouſand talents." P. 486.

With reſpect to the treaſures wafted by the ſail of commerce, from every country of the habitable globe to the ſhores of India, in exchange for its valuable productions, they are thus accounted for:

"* Diodorus Siculus, lib. xviii. cap. 66.
"† Ibid. lib. xvii. p. 63.
"‡ Strabonis Geograph. lib. xv. p. 741."

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"The principal uſe, to which the Indians ſeem to have applied the immenſe quantity of bullion, from age to age imported into their empire, was, to melt it down into ſtatues of their deities; if, indeed, by that title we may denominate the perſonified attributes of the Almighty and the elements of nature." Their pagodas were anciently crowded with theſe golden and ſilver ſtatues; they thought any inferior metal muſt degrade the Divinity, and the ſacred emanations that iſſued from the Source of all Being. Every houſe, too, was crowded with the ſtatues of their anceſtors, caſt in gold and ſilver; thoſe anceſtors that were exalted to the ſtars for their piety or valour. This cuſtom of erecting golden ſtatues, in their houſes and temples, to brave and virtuous men, ſeems to have remained long after the time of Alexander; for, we are told, by Apollonius, that he ſaw in India two golden ſtatues of that hero, and two of braſs, repreſenting Porus, the conquered Porus, and therefore of inferior metal*. The very altar of the temple was of maſſy gold; the incenſe flamed in cenſers of gold; and golden chalices and vaſes bore the honey, the oil, the wine, and the fruits, offered at their blameleſs ſacrifice. I have already mentioned the temple of the Sun, or rather of Auruna, the day-ſtar, deſcribed by Philoſtratus, whoſe lofty walls of porphyry were internally covered with broad plates of gold, ſculptured in rays, that, diverging every way, dazzled the beholder, while the radiant image of the adored deity burned, in gems of infinite variety and unequalled beauty, on the ſpangled floor. The floor alſo, of the great temple of Naugracut, in the northern mountains, even ſo late in time as the viſit of Mandeſloe, we have ſeen, was covered with plates of gold; and thus the Hindoo, in his purer devotion, trampled upon the god of half mankind. In the proceſſions alſo, made in honour of their idols, the utmoſt magnificence prevailed; they then brought forth all the wealth of the temple, and every order of people ſtrove to outvie each other in diſplaying their riches and adding to the pomp. The elephants marched firſt, richly decorated with gold and ſilver ornaments, ſtudded with precious ſtones; chariots, overlaid with thoſe metals, and loaded with them in ingots, advanced next; then followed the ſacred ſteers, coupled together with yokes of gold, and a train of the nobleſt and moſt beautiful beaſts of the foreſt, by nature fierce and ſanguinary, but rendered mild and tractable by the ſkill of man; an immenſe multitude of prieſts carrying veſſels, plates, diſhes, and other utenſils, all of gold, adorned with diamonds, rubies, and ſapphires, for the ſumptuous feaſt of which the gods were to partake, brought up the rear†. During all this time the air was rent with the ſound of various inſtruments, martial and feſtive; and the dancing girls diſplayed, in their ſumptuous apparel, the wealth of whole provinces exhauſted to decorate beauty devoted to religion." P. 497.

Having given the above ſpecimens from the lighter and more entertaining portion of the volume, and willing, before we take our final leave of the work, to do eſſential juſtice to the

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* Philoſtrat. lib. iii. cap. 11. † Strabo, lib. xv. p. 710."

laborious reſearches of the author, on thoſe abſtruſer ſubjects that yet remain for conſideration, we ſhall, in this inſtance, deviate from our general cuſtom, in regard to volumes in an octavo form, and allot to a ſecond article the detail of ſome circumſtances connected with literature and juriſprudence, not a little curious in their nature, nor wholly unimportant in their conſequences. While our Gallic rivals in arms and literature are *ſtill uſing* their moſt aſſiduous endeavours, for the worſt of purpoſes, to ſubvert the eſtabliſhed chronology of the Chriſtian world, let us not treat with neglect, or indifference, literary efforts of a directly contrary tendency, in which the utmoſt latitude is allowed to the exertion of human genius, in periods at all conſiſtent with the moſt enlarged limits of the Moſaic computation of the earth's exiſtence, as an habitable planet; in which arts and ſciences are traced back to their antediluvian origin; and the laws and traditions prevalent among the primeval race, are truly repreſented as ſometimes faintly glimmering, and at others beaming forth with irreſiſtible ſplendour, amidſt the obſcurity of Aſiatic codes, and the chaos of Oriental ſuperſtitions.

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. IV. *Practical Obſervations on the Uſe of Oxygen, or Vital Air, in the Cure of Diſeaſes: to which are added, a few Experiments on the Vegetation of Plants. By D. Hill, Fellow and One of the Council of the London Medical Society, and Honorary Member of the Medical Society at Guy's Hoſpital.* 4to. 58 pp. 7s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1800.

THIS author had long been employed, he ſays, in examining the properties of gaſeous fluids, and their effects on the human conſtitution, and had actually received conſiderable benefit, from uſing them in his own perſon, before he ventured to adminiſter them to his patients. A great number of trials ſince made, in a variety of diſeaſes, particularly in thoſe ariſing from debility, or want of energy in the conſtitution, and made, almoſt conſtantly, with advantage to the patients, induce him now to offer the reſult of his obſervations and experience to the public. The caſes of nineteen patients are related, which form a ſmall part only of the perſons who have been relieved,

or cured, by inhaling the oxygen gas, under the author's direction. The diſeaſes with which they were affected, were epilepſy, palſy, ſcrofula, rickets, and ſome anomalous complaints. From theſe we ſhall ſelect a caſe of hydrocephalus, as being a diſorder of frequent occurrence, and hitherto deemed incurable by medicine.

" *Caſe of Hydrocephalus, in the Child of William Bennet, late of Berner's Mews, now No. 26, Devonſhire-place Mews.*

" This was a ſtrong healthy child, till ſix months old, when he was ſeized with the ſmall-pox in the natural way. The epileptic fit, common to young children previous to the eruptive fever, laſted three quarters of an hour, accompanied with ſtrong convulſive ſtruggles, and much ſeeming pain and uneaſineſs in the head. The morning after this fit the ſmall-pox appeared. With common nurſing, during the ſeveral ſtages of the diſeaſe, the mother, to a certain degree, recovered the child; but as it often happens that, without proper medical aid, the conſtitution is much impaired, ſo it was in this child; for, when the eruption was gone, the habit was very much exhauſted, a great heavineſs affected it, and there was a conſiderable inflammation in the white part of the eye, where a puſtule had been.

" The child was taken in this ſtate to the Small-pox Hoſpital. Mr. Wachſel, the attendant apothecary, very judiciouſly ordered leeches to be applied to the temples, and ſeveral doſes of phyſic, which ſoon recovered the eye. Shortly afterwards, however, the child began to appear more dull and heavy; his head gradually enlarged; the ſutures, which had been united except the two fontanels, were beginning to loſe their bony union; and his lower extremities were ſo unable to ſupport his body, that every attempt to move him gave him great pain.

" He was now taken a ſecond time to the hoſpital. Mr. W. immediately diſcovered, that the enlargement of the head proceeded from water lodged within it, and appriſed the child's mother of its fatal conſequences. He notwithſtanding adviſed more doſes of phyſic, and ſome tonic remedy. The opening medicines gave him relief for a few days; but after that ſymptoms of oppreſſion returned with great violence, when the ſame remedies were repeated, but with no good effect. The head being now wonderfully increaſed in ſize, in conſequence of the weight and preſſure of the water on the brain, the paralyſis of all the extremities was complete.

" The child was brought to me in May, 1796, then ſeventeen months old. On examining its head, I found the ſagittal ſuture, commencing from the naſal proceſs, or bones of the noſe, and extending through the os frontis, or frontal bone, open to the full extent of half an inch. The other ſutures, connecting the ſeveral bones of the head, were in the ſame proportion open, and expanded from their natural bony union into a wide membranous one, under which water was felt to fluctuate very readily. On any kind of preſſure a convulſive motion of the body followed. His pulſe was weak, and beat near a hundred in a minute; and all his lower extremities were perfectly flabby, and motionleſs.

" This

"This deplorable caſe, on being preſented to my view, appeared to me one of the moſt incurable diſeaſes to which the human frame could be ſubject; and from its extent far more threatening than any I had ever met with during my practice. The child's total incapacity to inhale, even if vital air could act as a remedy, was the firſt difficulty I had to encounter. I therefore contrived to apply a tube to the body of my apparatus, cloſed the child's noſtrils with my finger and thumb, made it cry, and, as often as it took a deep inſpiration, forced the vital air from the apparatus into the lungs. This method ſucceeded completely; for warmth in the extremities was immediately felt, with a firmer pulſe, and ſoft ſkin. The ſucceeding night he ſlept with much more compoſure than he had done for many months, and his mother obſerved that he made an unuſual quantity of water.

"From continuing the ſame doſe of two parts of pure vital air to twenty of common air daily, in the courſe of a week he was evidently ſtronger, more lively, and his bowels, which from the general paralytic torpor had been diſpoſed to great coſtiveneſs, were become quite regular. As the action of the air by this time had produced a white tongue, I ordered a doſe of rhubarb and ſal polychreſt, to clear the bowels gradually, by repeating it at ſhort intervals. This ſoon cleared the tongue; the child ate a great deal heartier, and improved very much in appearance; the membranes ſoon became flaccid; and, as the water gradually leſſened, new *oſſific* matter gradually cloſed the future in the frontal bone. In a month the whole of the futures, except the two fontanels, were again united by a firm bony union. The head being reduced nearly to its natural ſize, on the cauſe of its enlargement being gradually removed, the palſy of the lower extremities recovered. Tonic remedies were now ordered, ſo that by the middle of October he could ſtand, and walk alone; and to ſo great a degree did the vital air renovate this poor little being, that he cut eight new teeth. This farther effort of nature appeared to be the only reaſon, why he did not recover the entire uſe of the lower extremities ſooner. Since his recovery, this child has had his thigh fractured: but his conſtitution has ſurmounted this accident, though he is rendered ſomewhat lame, by the injured limb being ſhorter than the other.

"*Obſervations on the preceding Caſe.*

"Vital air thus mechanically applied with the happieſt effects, in the laſt ſtage of this fatal diſeaſe, a diſeaſe too becoming more prevalent among children, with the phenomena of its thus imparting life to the blood, and exciting ſtrong action in the heart and arteries, cannot fail to claim much attention, and give confidence in future practice. In the next place it promoted an increaſe of all the ſecretions, by the ſkin, kidneys, and bowels. To theſe effects ſucceeded the reſtoration of natural ſleep, the ſubſequent abſorption of the water covering the brain, the renovation of the oſſific proceſs in uniting the various futures of the ſkull, and laſtly the removal of all the paralytic affections of the arms, legs, and bowels." P. 14.

Oxygen is exhibited with moſt advantage, the author ſays, to young ſubjects, as it aſſiſts in developing the parts, and aids their growth; next to them, to perſons from the age of puberty

berty to about the forty-fifth year; to thoſe who are further advanced in life, it ſhould be adminiſtered ſparingly, and with caution. The author has found the application of oxygen to the roots of plants highly beneficial, in reſtoring thoſe that are decaying, and accelerating their growth. He thinks alſo that, adminiſtered to fruit-trees, it heightens the flavour of the fruit. He propoſes to give a delineation of the apparatus he employs, in applying oxygen to trees, in a ſubſequent faſciculus or number, which will contain further experiments on the uſe of oxygen in the cure of diſeaſes. The caſes and obſervations are illuſtrated by plates, repreſenting two children, deformed and crippled by the rickets, with the view of ſhowing the advantage they experienced from inhaling the oxygen; and a geranium, firſt as blighted and nearly deſtroyed, by being expoſed to a cold froſty air, then, from the influence of the gas, full of bloom and vigour.

ART. V. *Travels in the Interior of Africa, from the Cape of Good Hope to Morocco, from the Year* 1781 *to* 1797; *through Caffraria, the Kingdoms of Mataman, Angola, Maſſi, Monœmugi, Muſchako, &c. likewiſe acroſs the Great Deſert of Sahara, and the Northern Parts of Barbary. Tranſlated from the German of Chriſtian Frederick Damberger. Illuſtrated by a Map, and coloured Plates.* 8vo. 9s. Longman. 1801.

WE are anxious, promptly, and we hope effectually, to do our utmoſt in checking the circulation of what we cannot help conſidering as a moſt impudent and fraudulent publication. Some individuals on the continent availing themſelves of the public curioſity, with reſpect to books of Travels, in general, and with what concerns Africa in particular, have, we do not the leaſt doubt, from a Map of Africa before them, produced this farrago of falſehood and nonſenſe. Were the account given in the book true, which we are certain it is not, it does not afford one atom either of information or amuſement, but is juſt ſuch ſtuff as the moſt ignorant of mankind might have put together, from any German Map.

We will inſert a few particulars, which not only juſtify, but eſtabliſh this ſuſpicion.

The volume conſiſts of about five hundred pages; of which one half is taken up with deſcribing the traveller's journey through Caffraria, a portion of Africa, very well known for having

having been moſt inveſtigated. The other half haſtily runs through the diameter of Africa, about which every one is anxiouſly inquiſitive, and which, if Mr. Damberger had actually examined, he muſt neceſſarily have deſcribed to the extent, not of half a ſcanty octavo volume, but of many entire books.

The compiler, for ſuch we muſt call him, is perpetually inveighing againſt Europeans in general, and againſt the Engliſh in particular, on account of the part they take in the ſlave-trade, and impudently and ignorantly aſſerts, that no Africans would have been made ſlaves, unleſs Europeans had come into the country. This information he has probably derived from ſome ingenious and candid eſſays on the ſlave-trade; whereas if he had read ſome authentic books, of leſs modern date, he would have found that expeditions for ſeizing ſlaves, are as old as the time of Seſoſtris.

In one place, he deſcribes himſelf as actually fainting from hunger, but after a ſhort interval recovering himſelf, without having received any nouriſhment, he walks many miles with a large land-turtle on his back.

He ſomewhere loſes himſelf, by ſinking *fathoms* deep in mud, but from this alſo he recovers without ſuffocation. The gentleman comes to an inn, in Africa, as regularly as to the Three Kings at Brentford; and, upon many occaſions, finds good entertainment for 20 Zimpoes. Whereas honeſt Poncet informs us that, in the interior of Africa, ſilver is of no uſe in the way of trade, all is done by exchange of commodities.

But in Page 147, Part II. we find Mr. Damberger in the ſummit of his glory. He arrives at Kahoratho, and here ſees a canal, which is conducted from the river Gambia. The compaſs which he repreſents as having with him, muſt have been terribly out of order, for Kahoratho happens to be in longitude 42, and the Gambia is in longitude 22, the length therefore of this canal muſt be 20 degrees, or 1400 miles. If this be not in the ſtyle of Münckhauſen, we know not what is. From this part therefore we will make a ſhort extract.

"Here I choſe to remain, becauſe I perceived that it would not be poſſible for me to reach the town of Bahahara, it ſtill being three or four leagues diſtant.—On the the 10th, in the forenoon, I came to that town; where I was immediately taken in cuſtody by ſix ſoldiers, and carried to the dwelling-place of the king. But he ſent word to the guard, that, as he could not ſpeak with me that day, they muſt take me back, and keep a ſtrict watch over me. Accordingly, I was conveyed to a goat-hut, and preſented with victuals and drink in abundance.—Next morning an order came to bring me to the king; I followed, and

and was brought before him. At my entrance a variety of queſtions were put to me by one of his miniſters *; namely: Wherefore was I come into that country?—Whether I had brought the king any preſents?—Whither I intended to proceed?—And whether I was a chriſtian? I anſwered, that I had thought it the neareſt and alſo the ſafeſt way to travel through that country; that I was an unfortunate mariner who had loſt all his property, and no chriſtian; neither did I require any farther aſſiſtance than quarters for the night, and, if it were poſſible, meat and drink for one day; but that if my preſence were diſagreeable to the king, I was ready to quit the town immediately. On receiving orders to remain, as the king wanted to have ſome conference with me himſelf, I was taken back to my hut, and again ſupplied with meat and drink. I lived very comfortably here till the 14th, eating, drinking, and ſleeping; but now my affairs took another turn. An officer fetched me from where I was, and conveyed me to the ſlave-hut; where, on the ſucceeding morning, I was obliged to riſe very early, and, by command of the overſeer, firſt feed the horſes, then preſs dates, and, at laſt, carry the implements for hunting, ſuch as a ſpear, two fowling-pieces, and a water-veſſel, into the foreſt. Theſe offices, however, I retained only a few days. For once, as I was carrying the king's guns into the foreſt, I examined them. The king obſerving this, aſked why I examined them. I anſwered, to ſee, as they were in a very bad condition, whether they could not be repaired. The locks probably had not been unſcrewed and oiled for ſome years, and were therefore all over ruſt. The king, perceiving me thoughtful, aſked whether I would put his arms in better order; on my replying in the affirmative, he ſaid, that I ſhould have another dwelling, and more conveniencies, that very day.—I have remarked above, that in the country of Bahahara, and the adjacent parts, it is cuſtomary for people to travel about on purpoſe to clean arms, and repair them when damaged. It may therefore be thought that my pretending to work in this way was ſuperfluous; but, for clearing up this matter, I muſt mention what follows: A few years before my arrival, the king of Haouſſa declared war againſt the king of Bahahara, and did him conſiderable miſchief. The armourers, as I may call them, had juſt at that time been putting the arms of the latter king in good condition, and were about to go away, when the king ſent them orders not to depart, but to abide in his capital, that they might not furbiſh and repair the arms of his enemies. Reſolving, however, to go, as there was no more to be earat in that place, the king ordered them to be arreſted and thrown into priſon, from which they were not to be delivered till the termination of the war. From that time forth they have never come into the country, notwithſtanding the king has made them large promiſes.—That very evening a roomy hut was aſſigned

"* The king underſtood my language; but from ſtatelineſs, choſe to talk with me through his miniſter, as he only ſpeaks with his officers and great men by his own mouth: and it was a teſtimony of extreme grace and condeſcenſion in him, afterwards, to converſe perſonally with me."

me,

me, adjoining to what is called the palace of the king; I had victuals and drink brought me whenever I chose, and was waited on by a slave. I took my own time, worked very leisurely; but what I did was therefore of the more importance. On the third day I presented the king with the first repaired fowling-piece, on which I was loaded with encomiums, and dismissed with assurances of the royal favour.—After a short time I was again sent for by the king, who commissioned me to rectify the damaged arms of all the soldiers, and likewise to furnish some of the soldiers with directions to enable them in future to repair their own arms. In regard to the former I could not give him a satisfactory answer; representing to him that, as I was not able to make new locks and triggers, it would be impossible for me to repair all the arms; but such as were within my ability should be done. He was satisfied with my remonstrances, saying, that he did not require of me more than to do what I could, as the arms without locks and triggers might still be of service. I, some time afterwards, informed myself how this could be, and was told, that the soldiers who went with such arms to war, fired them by applying burning wood or glowing embers to the pan.—I had now a very good time of it, working at my own option, and at leisure hours strolling about the town, in order to make acquaintances, and to study the manners, customs, and ceremonies of the country. I not unfrequently attended the king to the chace, and found it a very agreeable pastime. The king repeatedly urged me to take a wife; nay, he even seemed disposed to cede to me one of his four hundred concubines; but I diverted him from his purpose by telling him that I had already a wife and three children in my own country, whom, if he would permit me, I would go and fetch hither. At the beginning of March 1788 the king informed me, that the time was drawing nigh when he should leave Bahahara, on account of the bad water at that season, and repair to Kahoratho, where a canal was conducted from the river Gambia, yielding fresh and good water. It was easy for me to imagine that he would command me to attend him; and I therefore came to the resolution, either with his consent, or privily, to pursue my journey from that place. Two days previous to the king's departure, I actually received orders to get myself in readiness to set out with him. Thanking the king for his gracious commands, and for the confidence he reposed in me, I at the same time requested him to give me leave to set forward on my way home, that I might be back again with him before the rainy season came on.—"How many days journey hast thou to thy home?" interrogated the king.—I answered, "More than thirty."—"I will give thee two trusty persons to accompany thee thither and back again."—"That favour I cannot accept; first, because I could not maintain these people on the road, and again, because the arrival of them in my country would attract so much observation, as would induce my king to put me in prison, to prevent me from returning; since it is my business there, as I have done here, to keep the guns of my king in good order; consequently I could not leave him by day, but must contrive to come clandestinely away by night, in order to return to thee."—By these arguments the king was moved to grant me permission shortly to take my departure.—On the 13th we set out from Bahabara,

hahara, in full court-ſtate, namely, with twenty prieſts, four hundred men on foot, two hundred horſemen, and about a hundred wives of the king.—Bahahara is upwards of a league in length, and about three quarters of a league in breadth, has few houſes, though a great many huts conſtructed of ruſhes and palm-leaves, and having the lower parts plaiſtered with mortar. The town is ſurrounded by a double paliſade, contains about a hundred temples very badly built, ſcarcely better than the huts, and has four ſtreets formed by the diſpoſition of the huts into five rows.—The palace, like the few houſes, conſiſts only of one ſtory, but is extremely ſpacious, compriſing the ſixth part of the whole town. It is incloſed by a wall built of flints and pieces of rock, five feet high, three feet thick, and very irregular. In the court of the palace ſtand nine detached buildings, inhabited by the prieſts, the concubines and officers. On the north ſide of it is a quadrangle ſurrounded with ſtones, in which the horſes belonging to the horſemen on guard, ſtand at night. The king's manſion is on the ſouth-ſide, and conſiſts of four apartments, which among us would be called ſtables. One of them I plaiſtered with mortar, painting it a green colour from young palm-leaves and the juice of tamarinds, at which the king was extremely pleaſed.—In the town are two market-places: one not far from the palace, for fruits and corn; the other on the weſt ſide of the town, where fiſh, fowl, and other animals are ſold and bartered. The merchants, of whom here are ten or twelve, make Mondays and Wedneſdays, according to our diviſion of the week, their principal days of buſineſs, when they publicly hang out on bare poles ſuch commodities as they have for ſale. Every year likewiſe two great fairs are held, to which foreign merchants are ſaid to come from the diſtance even of twenty days journey. As neither of them happened during the time of my ſtay, I can ſay nothing farther about them." P. 142.

The reader will perceive, that Tombuctoo is here called Tambuka. A little further on, this traveller comes to Silla; with reſpect to the ſituation of which place, he differs totally from Mungo Park. This gentleman, whoſe veracity has been never called in queſtion, places Silla upon the Niger, and to the ſouth-weſt of Tombuctoo; whereas, Mr. Damberger repreſents it far from the Niger, and to the north-eaſt of Tombuctoo.

We could eaſily add a conſiderable number of other blunders and abſurdities, but we think what we have produced will be ſufficient to ſatisfy the reader of the juſtice of our determination. They incline us at leaſt to be of the ſame opinion with a facetious reader, who intimated that there muſt ſurely be a miſtake in the name of the author, and that, for *Damberger*, we ſhould read *Humberger*.

ART. VI. *Lyrical Ballads, with other Poems: in Two Vols. By W. Wordſworth. Second Edition.* Fine-paper 12mo. 10s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

IN our Review for October, 1799, we noticed, with conſiderable ſatisfaction, the firſt edition of this work, then compriſed in one anonymous volume. It is now extended, by the addition of another volume; and the author has given his name to it, with the exception of the *Ancient Mariner*, the *Foſter Mother's Tale*, the *Nightingale*, the *Dungeon*, and the poem entitled *Love*; all of which, as he informs us, are furniſhed by a friend, whoſe opinions on the ſubject of Poetry agree almoſt entirely with his own. From this ſimilarity of mind, and from ſome expreſſions in the Advertiſement prefixed to the firſt edition, we were then led to attribute the whole to Mr. Coleridge, the ſuppoſed author of the Ancient Mariner: we now, therefore, add to the liſt of our Poets another name, no leſs likely to do it honour. Mr. Wordſworth has, indeed, appeared before the public ſome years ago, as author of Deſcriptive Sketches in Verſe, and of an Evening Walk; compoſitions, in which were diſcoverable the fire and fancy of a true poet, though obſcured by diction, often and intentionally inflated. His ſtyle is now wholly changed, and he has adopted a purity of expreſſion, which, to the faſtidious ear, may ſometimes perhaps ſound poor and low, but which is infinitely more correſpondent with true feeling than what, by the courteſy of the day, is uſually called poetical language.

Whatever may be thought of theſe Poems, it is evident that they are not to be confounded with the flood of poetry, which is poured forth in ſuch profuſion by the modern Bards of Science, or their brethren, the Bards of Inſipidity. The author has thought for himſelf; he has deeply ſtudied human nature, in the book of human action; and he has adopted his language from the ſame ſources as his feelings. Aware that "his Poems are ſo materially different from thoſe upon which general approbation is at preſent beſtowed," he has now defended them in a Preface of ſome length; not with the fooliſh hope of reaſoning his readers into the approbation of theſe particular Poems, but as a neceſſary juſtification of the ſpecies of poetry to which they belong. This Preface, though written in ſome parts with a degree of metaphyſical obſcurity, conveys much penetrating and judicious obſervation, important at all times, but eſpecially when, as it is well obſerved, "the invaluable works of our elder writers are driven into neglect

neglect by frantic novels, ſickly and ſtupid German tragedies, and deluges of idle and extravagant ſtories in verſe." Perhaps it would be expecting too much from any one but Shakſpeare, were we to demand that he ſhould be the Poet of human nature. It would be no mean, it would indeed be a very lofty praiſe, to aſſert of a writer, that he is able to pour into other boſoms powerful feelings of a particular claſs, or belonging to a particular order of men. To this praiſe, Mr. Wordſworth lays a well-ſupported claim. He declares himſelf the Poet chiefly of low and ruſtic life (ſome ſpecimens of ability he has given in other lines, but this is evidently his excellence) and he pourtrays it, not under its diſguſting forms, but in ſituations affording, as he thinks, the beſt ſoil for the eſſential paſſions of the heart, incorporated with an elementary and durable ſtate of manners, and with the beautiful and permanent forms of nature*.

Each ſeparate Poem has, as its diſtinct *purpoſe*, the development of a feeling, which gives importance to the action and ſituation, and not the action or ſituation to the feeling. Whether the particular purpoſe is, in every caſe, *worthy* of a Poet, will perhaps admit of ſome doubt. We have no heſitation in ſaying, that it is generally intereſting, often invaluable; but on theſe points the author ſhall ſpeak for himſelf.

"This object I have endeavoured in theſe ſhort Eſſays to attain, by various means; by tracing the maternal paſſion through many of its more ſubtle windings, as in the Poems of the *Ideot Boy* and the *Mad Mother*; by accompanying the laſt ſtruggles of a human being at the approach of death, cleaving in ſolitude to life and ſociety, as in the Poem of the *Forſaken Indian*; by ſhewing, as in the ſtanzas entitled *We are ſeven*, the perplexity and obſcurity which in childhood attend our notion of death, or rather our utter inability to admit that notion; by diſplaying the ſtrength of fraternal, or, to ſpeak more philoſophically, of moral attachment, when early aſſociated with the great and beautiful objects of Nature, as in the *Brothers*; or as in the incident of *Simon Lee*, by placing my reader in the way of receiving, from ordinary moral ſenſations, another and more ſalutary impreſſion than we are accuſtomed to receive from them. It has alſo been part of my

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* Mr. Wordſworth ſeems to be peculiarly well ſituated for the ſubjects of ſuch a ſtudy. The vicinity of the Lakes in Cumberland and Weſtmoreland (the ſcene of moſt of his Poems) is chiefly inhabited by an order of men nearly extinct in other parts of England. Theſe are ſmall farmers, called in that part of the country *'Stateſmen*, who, cultivating their own little property, are raiſed above the immediate preſſure of want, with very few opportunities of acquiring wealth. They are a mild, hoſpitable people, with ſome turn for reading; and their perſonal appearance is, for the moſt part, intereſting.

general

general purpoſe, to attempt to ſketch characters under the influence of leſs impaſſioned feelings, as in the *Old Man travelling*, the *Two Thieves*, &c. characters of which the elements are ſimple, belonging rather to Nature than to Manners; ſuch as exiſt now, and will probably always exiſt, and which, from their conſtitution, may be diſtinctly and profitably contemplated." P. xv.

Of the judicious degree of ſimplicity in language which the author attained in his firſt volume, we formerly expreſſed our approbation. The ſecond is written with equal felicity, being alike grounded upon an accurate and attentive obſervation of thoſe modes of ſpeech, which are prompted by the natural flow of paſſion. Where the ſubjects are ſupplied by ruſtic life, the language of ruſtics, purified only from accidental aſſociations of diſguſt, is alſo adopted, and for this ſimple and weighty reaſon; becauſe,

"ſuch a language, ariſing out of repeated experience and regular feelings, is a more permanent, and a far more philoſophical, language, than that which is frequently ſubſtituted for it by poets, who think that they are conferring honour upon themſelves and their art, in proportion as they ſeparate themſelves from the ſympathies of men, and indulge in arbitrary and capricious habits of expreſſion, in order to furniſh food for fickle taſtes, and fickle appetites, of their own creation."

The author has argued with great ingenuity, and at ſome length, on the abſurdity of the diſtinction frequently made between the appropriate language of proſe, and that of metrical compoſition. He has ſhown, that the two ſpecies of writing may be wholly ſimilar in every thing but metre; and that neither of them can be dignified by any other means than energy and loftineſs of thought. A great part of this argument would appear uſeleſs, had we not unhappily witneſſed, in ſome ſtriking inſtances, how much the public taſte may be miſled by affected pomp and falſe glitter of language. We cannot too often repeat, that the frippery and fuſtian of the Darwinian phraſeology, is no more compatible with a juſt claſſical taſte, than the heterogeneous mixture of ſcience and fancy is allowable in a poetical ſubject. The faults of this kind, in the ſecond volume, are ſo very few, as to deſerve no notice, in compariſon with the general purity of the ſtyle. As to the ſubjects, it muſt be owned that their worth does not always appear at firſt ſight; but, judging from our own feelings, we muſt aſſert, that it generally grows upon the reader by ſubſequent peruſal. The following remarks may, perhaps, illuſtrate the cauſe of this improving intereſt.

1. It is not requiſite that the poetic feeling ſhould be ſtrictly referable to any of thoſe known and powerful claſſes, called the

the ſublime, the terrible, the pathetic, &c. It may ſometimes conſiſt in a gentle agitation of the contending emotions, from which a preponderance of pleaſure is ultimately produced, as from the melancholy recollections of a cheerful old man, in the *Two April Mornings*, and the *Fountain*; ſometimes it may ariſe from the mixture of lively imagery with various feelings, as with exultation and pity, in the two parts of *Hartleap Well*; ſometimes it may be founded on the ſoft, and almoſt inſenſible affections which we receive from natural ſcenery, aided, perhaps, by ſome accidental aſſociation in our own minds. Of this kind are the different Poems on the *Naming of Places*, *Lines written with a Slate Pencil*, *&c. Rural Architecture*, and ſome others.

2. Even where the feeling intended to be called forth is of a rich and noble character, ſuch as we may recur to, and feed upon, it may yet be wrought up ſo gradually, including ſo many preparatory circumſtances of appropriate manners, of local deſcription, of actual events, &c. that the ſubtle uniting thread will be loſt, without a perſevering effort toward attention on the part of the reader. Who, that has ſtudied Shakſpeare, muſt not be conſcious how often the connection of minute and trifling incidents with the main ſtory has eluded his obſervation, until after repeated peruſals? Something of this kind will probably occur to the readers of the *Brothers*, the *Cumberland Beggar*, and more particularly of the Poem, entitled *Michael*; yet theſe three are of the higheſt order of Poems in the volume. The intereſt, eſpecially of the firſt, is ſo dramatically wrought up, the minute touches are ſo accurately ſtudied, the general effect is ſo inſenſibly produced, and appeals ſo forcibly to the heart, as to rank its author far beyond the reach of common-place praiſe or cenſure.

3. There is a third claſs of Poems poſſeſſing a ſtrong effect, which reſults equally from the power of imagination and of feeling; in theſe, the prominent features of the ſtory are all along attended with a concurring ſplendour of poetic ornament, and the combined influence of theſe agents pervades every part of the compoſition. This is greatly the caſe in the Poem of *Ruth*, and in that of *Ellen Irwin*, of which the latter is merely narrative; the former intermixes much of deep and intereſting ſpeculation: to this claſs alſo may be referred *Lucy Gray* and *Poor Suſan*, with ſeveral beautiful ſpecimens in the ſecond volume.

4. Other ſmall pieces have different characteriſtics. The *Fragment* of the Daniſh Boy is a mere creation of fancy; the *Pet Lamb* preſents a portraiture of infantine ſimplicity; and

the lines in pages 50 and 53, are maſterly ſketches of thoſe "ſtrange fits of paſſion," which ſometimes unaccountably flaſh acroſs a poetical mind.

From the longer Poems it is almoſt impoſſible to ſelect any paſſage without injury to its effect, owing to a want of that intereſt which the context ſupplies. We ſhall, however, venture to cite the following tender touches from the *Brothers*.

"——— though their parents
Lay buried ſide by ſide, as now they lie,
The old man was a father to the boys,
Two fathers in one father: and if tears
Shed, when he talk'd of them where they were not,
And hauntings from the infirmity of love
Are aught of what makes up a mother's heart,
This old man, in the day of his old age,
Was half a mother to them." P. 32.

In the *Poet's Epitaph*, an effuſion of good-humoured ſatire, is ſucceeded by this picture of animated and engaging ſenſibility.

"But who is he with modeſt looks,
And clad in homely ruſſet brown?
He murmurs near the running brooks
A muſic ſweeter than their own.

He is retired as noon-tide dew,
Or fountain in a noon-day grove;
And you muſt love him, ere to you
He will ſeem worthy of your love.

The outward ſhews of ſky and earth,
Of hill and valley he has view'd;
And impulſes of deeper birth
Have come to him in ſolitude.

In common things that round us lie,
Some random truths he can impart;
The harveſt of a quiet eye,
That broods and ſleeps on his own heart.

But he is weak, both man and boy,
Hath been an idler in the land;
Contented if he might enjoy
The things which others underſtand.

Come hither in thy hour of ſtrength,
Come, weak as is a breaking wave!
Here ſtretch thy body at full length,
Or build thy houſe upon this grave." P. 167.

Perhaps

Perhaps the Engliſh language can boaſt few inſtances of deſcriptive poetry, enlivened with a happier variety of imagery, than the fanciful echo in the Poem inſcribed to *Joanna*. The lady's laugh, to be ſure, is loud, but it is not unpleaſing.

" When I had gazed perhaps two minutes' ſpace,
Joanna, looking in my eyes, beheld
That raviſhment of mine, and laugh'd aloud.
The rock, like ſomething ſtarting from a ſleep,
Took up the lady's voice, and laugh'd again:
That ancient woman*, ſeated on Helm-crag,
Was ready with her cavern; Hammar-Scar,
And the tall ſteep of Silver-How ſent forth
A noiſe of laughter; ſouthern Loughrigg heard,
And Fairfield anſwered with a mountain tone:
Helvellyn far into the clear blue ſky
Carried the lady's voice;—old Skiddaw blew
His ſpeaking trumpet;—back out of the clouds
Of Glaramara ſouthward came the voice;
And Kirkſtone toſs'd it from his miſty head." P. 185.

But the moſt ſingular ſpecimens of unpretending, yet irreſiſtible pathos, are the two *Songs*, p. 50 and 52. In artleſſneſs, they ſtrongly remind us of Burns; but perhaps go beyond him in delicacy. As they have a ſecret connection, we ſhall inſert both.

" Strange fits of paſſion I have known,
And I will dare to tell;
But in the lover's ear alone,
What once to me befel.

When ſhe I lov'd was ſtrong and gay,
And like a Roſe in June,
I to her cottage bent my way,
Beneath the evening moon.

Upon the moon I fix'd my eye,
All over the wide lea;
My horſe trudg'd on, and we drew nigh,
Thoſe paths ſo dear to me.

And now we reach'd the orchard plot,
And, as we climb'd the hill,
Towards the roof of Lucy's cot,
The moon deſcended ſtill.

" * On Helm Crag, that impreſſive ſingle mountain at the head of Graſmere, is a rock which, from moſt points of view, bears a ſtriking reſemblance to an old woman cowering. Cloſe by this rock is one of thoſe fiſſures or caverns, which, in the language of the country, are called *Dungeons*. The other mountains either immediately ſurround the vale of Graſmere, or belong to the ſame cluſter."

In

In one of thoſe ſweet dreams I ſlept,
Kind Nature's gentleſt boon!
And all the while, my eyes I kept
On the deſcending moon.

My horſe mov'd on; hoof after hoof
He rais'd, and never ſtopp'd:
When down behind the cottage roof
At once the planet dropp'd.

What fond and wayward thoughts will ſlide
Into a lover's head;
"O, mercy!" to myſelf I cried,
"If Lucy ſhould be dead!"

She dwelt among th' untrodden ways,
Beſide the ſprings of Dove,
A maid whom there were none to praiſe,
And very few to love.

A violet by a moſſy ſtone,
Half hidden from the eye;
Fair as a ſtar, when only one
Is ſhining in the ſky.

She *liv'd* unknown, and few could know
When Lucy ceas'd to be;
But ſhe is in her grave, and oh!
The difference to me."

When the art of poetry has been long cultivated among a poliſhed people, and brought to a ſtate of great refinement, the natural operation of an ill-judged ambition, to excel even thoſe who have moſt ſucceſsfully adorned the language, leads writers either to employ an affected and over-laboured ſtyle, or, at leaſt, to keep always upon the high ſtilts of elegance, to the excluſion of Nature and Simplicity. In ſuch a ſtate of the poetic art, that man may be conſidered as a public benefactor, who, with talents equal to the taſk, which is arduous, recals attention to the more natural ſtyle, and ſhows what may be effected by ſimple language, expreſſive of human paſſions, and genuine, not artificial feelings. In this character, Mr. Wordſworth appears; and appears with a ſucceſs, to which we could by no means refuſe our approbation. We will not deny that ſometimes he goes ſo far in his purſuit of ſimplicity, as to become flat or weak; but, in general, he ſets an example which the full-dreſſed poet of affectation might wiſh, but wiſh in vain, to follow*. He would correct Mr. W. as the dancing-maſter of Hogarth would correct the attitude of Antinous.

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* The title of the Poems is, in ſome degree, objectionable; for what Ballads are not *Lyrical?* Beſides, there are many compoſitions in blank verſe, not at all Lyrical.

ART. VII. *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year* 1800. *Part II.* 4to. 298 pp. The Two Parts 1l. 5s. 6d. Elmſly.

XII. *On double Images cauſed by Atmoſpherical Refraction.* By William Hyde Wollaſton, M. D. F. R. S.

THE refractive property of the atmoſphere has often been obſerved to deviate from its more uſual mode of acting, and ſeveral inſtances are mentioned in former volumes of the Phil. Tranſ. and elſewhere, of its having repreſented objects in an inverted poſition, or having formed an inverted image beneath the object itſelf; but as the cauſe of ſuch unuſual refractive power had not been ſatisfactorily explained, Dr. Wollaſton endeavoured,

"1ſt. To inveſtigate theoretically the ſucceſſive variations of increaſing or decreaſing denſity, to which fluids in general are liable, and the laws of the refractions occaſioned by them.

"2nd. To illuſtrate and confirm the truth of this theory, by experiments with fluids of known denſity.

"And, laſtly, to aſcertain, by trial upon the air itſelf, the cauſes and extent of thoſe variations of its refractive denſity, on which the inverſions of objects, and other phænomena obſerved, appear to depend."

With this view, Dr. W. very properly expreſſes the general laws, which may be applied to all caſes of varying denſity, in three propoſitions, which are as follows.

"Prop. I. If the denſity of any medium varies by parallel indefinitely thin ſtrata, any rays of light moving through it in the direction of the ſtrata, will be made to deviate during their paſſage, and their deviations will be in proportion to the increments of denſity where they paſs.

"Prop. II. When two fluids of unequal denſity are brought into contact, and unite by mutual penetration; if the denſities at different heights be expreſſed by ordinates, the curve which terminates theſe ordinates, will have a point of contrary flexure.

"Prop. III. If parallel rays paſs through a medium, varying according to the preceding propoſition, thoſe above the point of contrary flexure will be made to diverge, and thoſe below the ſame point will converge, after their paſſage through it."

Thoſe propoſitions are clearly demonſtrated, and the demonſtrations are illuſtrated by means of diagrams; after which, Dr. W. relates a variety of well-contrived experiments, accompanying them with uſeful remarks, and alluſions to the phænomena obſerved by other perſons (the above-mentioned diagrams

diagrams and preparations of the experiments are delineated in a plate which follows the paper). But it being not in our power to give a very conciſe, and at the ſame time a ſufficiently clear idea of thoſe particulars, we ſhall conclude with an enumeration of the particulars that are explained by them; viz.

"1ſt. Why air heated by the moderate warmth of the ſun's rays, occaſions objects to appear doubled and inverted.

"2ndly. Why refraction, by a higher degree of heat, gives an additional image, which is not inverted.

"3dly. In what ſtate of evaporation the increaſe of the air's denſity brings diſtant objects into view by unuſual elevation.

"4thly. Under what circumſtances evaporation may alſo produce an inverted image leſs elevated.

"And it is probable, that the ſame reaſoning will afford a ready explanation to other varieties of terreſtrial refraction that may have been, or may hereafter be obſerved."

XIII. *Inveſtigation of the Powers of the priſmatic Colours to heat, and illuminate Objects; with Remarks, that prove the different Refrangibility of radiant Heat. To which is added, an Inquiry into the Method of viewing the Sun advantageouſly, with Teleſcopes of large Apertures, and high magnifying Powers.* By William Herſchel, LL. D. F. R. S.

The various experiments which this indefatigable aſtronomer has made, at different times, for the purpoſe of obſerving the ſun through teleſcopes, in a manner that might be leſs hurtful to the eye, and the uſe of differently coloured darkening glaſſes, had ſtruck him at different times with a remarkable peculiarity of effects; for with ſome of thoſe darkening glaſſes he felt a conſiderable ſenſation of heat, whilſt they tranſmitted but little light; whereas others tranſmitted much light, and ſcarce any ſenſation of heat.

"Now," ſays he, "as in theſe different combinations the ſun's image was alſo differently coloured, it occurred to me, that the priſmatic rays might have the power of heating bodies very unequally diſtributed among them; and, as I judged it right in this reſpect to entertain a doubt, it appeared equally proper to admit the ſame with regard to light. If certain colours ſhould be more apt to occaſion heat, others might, on the contrary, be more fit for viſion, by poſſeſſing a ſuperior illuminating power."

The well-imagined, and well-executed experiments, which Dr. H. made in conſequence of this ſuppoſition, verified his hypotheſis, and opened a vaſt field of ſpeculation and experimental enquiry to the eyes of philoſophers. The account of

the experiments and obſervations which forms this moſt intereſting paper, is arranged under diſtinct heads, of which we ſhall endeavour to give a conciſe idea.

Experiments on the heating Power of coloured Rays.

The general method of conducting ſuch experiments is deſcribed by this author in the following manner:

"I fixed," ſays he, "a piece of paſteboard in a frame mounted upon a ſtand, and moveable upon two centres. In the paſteboard I cut an opening, a little larger than the ball of a thermometer, and of a ſufficient length to let the whole extent of one of the priſmatic colours paſs through. I then placed three thermometers upon ſmall inclined planes: their balls were blackened with japan ink. Their balls being very ſmall, made them of exquiſite ſenſibility. The ſcales of all were properly diſengaged from the balls.

"I now placed the ſtand, with the framed paſteboard and the thermometers, upon a ſmall plain board; that I might be at liberty to move the whole apparatus together, without deranging the relative ſituation of the different parts.

"This being done, I ſet a priſm, moveable on its axis, into the upper part of an open window, at right angles to the ſolar rays; and turned it about till its refracted coloured ſpectrum became ſtationary, upon a table placed at a proper diſtance from the window.

"The board containing the apparatus was now put on the table, and ſet in ſuch a manner as to let the rays of one colour paſs through the opening in the paſteboard. The moveable frame was then adjuſted to be perpendicular to the rays coming from the priſm; and the inclined planes carrying the three thermometers, with their balls arranged in a line, were ſet ſo near the opening, that any one of them might eaſily be advanced far enough to receive the irradiation of the colour which paſſed through the opening, while the reſt remained cloſe by, under the ſhade of the paſteboard."

This deſcription is accompanied with a delineation of the apparatus.

The concluſion drawn from the reſult of the experiments which were performed with this apparatus, and which are particularly ſtated in the paper, is, that the heating power of red rays is to the heating power of green rays, as 550 to 242; and that the heating power of red rays is to that of violet rays, as 35 to 10.

Experiments on the illuminating Power of coloured Rays.

The experiments which are related under this head, had two objects in view, namely, to aſcertain the power of illuminating which belongs to each particular coloured ray, and their aptneſs for giving diſtinct viſion.

"I placed," ſays Dr. H. "an object that had very minute parts, under a double microſcope; and, having ſet a priſm in the window, ſo

ſo as to make the coloured image of the ſun ſtationary upon the table where the microſcope was placed, I cauſed the differently-coloured rays to fall ſucceſſively on the object, by advancing the microſcope into their light. The magnifying power was 27 times.

" In changing the illumination, by admitting a different colour, it always becomes neceſſary to readjuſt the inſtrument. It is well known, that the different refrangibility of the rays will ſenſibly affect the focal length of object-glaſſes; but in compound viſion, ſuch as in a microſcope, where a very ſmall lens is made to caſt a lengthened ſecondary focus, this difference becomes ſtill more conſiderable.

" By an attentive and repeated inſpection, I found that my object was very well ſeen in red, better in orange, and ſtill better in yellow; full as well in green, but to leſs advantage in blue; indifferently well in indigo, and with more imperfection in violet."

Several other ſubſtances, ſuch as red paper, green paper, a piece of braſs, &c. were likewiſe viewed in differently coloured lights, and their appearances are particularly deſcribed.

" From theſe obſervations, which agree uncommonly well, with reſpect to the illuminating power aſſigned to each colour, we may conclude, that the red-making rays are very far from having it in any eminent degree. The orange poſſeſs more of it than the red; and the yellow rays illuminate objects ſtill more perfectly. The maximum of illumination lies in the brighteſt yellow, or paleſt green. The green itſelf is nearly equally bright with the yellow; but, from the full deep green, the illuminating power decreaſes very ſenſibly. That of the blue is nearly upon a par with that of the red; the indigo has much leſs than the blue; and the violet is very deficient.

" With regard to the principle of diſtinctneſs, there appears to be no deficiency in any one of the colours, &c."

Radiant Heat is of different Refrangibility.

" I muſt now remark that my foregoing experiments aſcertain beyond a doubt, that radiant heat, as well as light, whether they be the ſame or different agents, is not only refrangible, but is alſo ſubject to the laws of the diſperſion ariſing from its different refrangibility; and, as this ſubject is new, I may be permitted to dwell a few moments upon it. The priſm refracts radiant heat, ſo as to ſeparate that which is leſs efficacious, from that which is more ſo. The whole quantity of radiant heat contained in a ſun-beam, if this different refrangibility did not exiſt, muſt inevitably fall uniformly on a ſpace equal to the area of the priſm; and, if radiant heat were not refrangible at all, it would fall upon an equal ſpace, in the place where the ſhadow of the priſm, when covered, may be ſeen. But, neither of theſe events taking place, it is evident that radiant heat is ſubject to the laws of refraction, and alſo to thoſe of the different refrangibility of light. May not this lead us to ſurmiſe, that radiant heat conſiſts of particles of light of a certain range of momenta, and which range may extend a little farther, on each ſide of refrangibility, than that of light? We have ſhewn, that in a gradual expoſure of the thermometer to the rays

of the priſmatic ſpectrum, beginning from the violet, we come to the maximum of light, long before we come to that of heat, which lies at the other extreme. By ſeveral experiments, which time will not allow me now to report, it appears that the maximum of illumination has little more than half the heat of the full red rays; and from other experiments, I likewiſe conclude, that the full red falls ſtill ſhort of the maximum of heat; which perhaps lies even a little beyond viſible refraction. In this caſe, radiant heat will at leaſt partly, if not chiefly, conſiſt, if I may be permitted the expreſſion, of inviſible light; that is to ſay, of rays coming from the ſun, that have ſuch a momentum as to be unfit for viſion. And, admitting, as is highly probable, that the organs of ſight are only adapted to receive impreſſions from particles of a certain momentum, it explains why the maximum of illumination ſhould be in the middle of the refrangible rays; as thoſe which have greater or leſs momenta, are likely to become equally unfit for impreſſions of ſight. Whereas, in radiant heat, there may be no ſuch limitation to the momentum of its particles. From the powerful effects of a burning lens, however, we gather the information, that the momentum of the terreſtrial radiant is not likely to exceed that of the ſun; and that, conſequently, the refrangibility of *calorific* rays cannot extend much beyond that of *colourific* light. Hence we may alſo infer, that the inviſible heat of red-hot iron, gradually cooled till it ceaſes to ſhine, has the momentum of the inviſible rays which, in the ſolar ſpectrum viewed by day-light, go to the confines of red; and this will afford an eaſy ſolution of the reflection of inviſible heat by concave mirrors."

Application of the Reſult of the foregoing Obſervations, to the Method of viewing the Sun advantageouſly, with Teleſcopes of large Apertures and magnifying Powers.

The particulars of this ſection, and of the next, under the title of *Teleſcopic Experiments*, do not admit of being ſufficiently abridged to be reported here.

XIV. *Experiments on the Refrangibility of the inviſible Rays of the Sun.* By William Herſchel, LL. D. F. R. S.

In the ſection of the preceding paper, on radiant heat, which we have tranſcribed in full, the ſtrong probability is aſſerted, of the range of radiant heat being more extenſive than that of the coloured ſpectrum. The experiments which are related in the preſent paper place the matter beyond all doubt, and furniſh, at the ſame time, the explanation of ſeveral curious phænomena.

The apparatus, with which thoſe experiments were performed, is delineated in a plate, without which it would not be eaſy to give a diſtinct deſcription of them. It may ſuffice to ſay, that Dr. Herſchel placed ſome thermometers in different parts of the priſmatic ſpectrum, as alſo in places adjoining to it; and by a long ſeries of obſervations, in which

which this very able philoſopher uſed every neceſſary precaution, he was at length enabled to form the following deductions:

" The firſt four experiments prove, that there are rays coming from the ſun which are leſs refrangible than any of thoſe that affect the ſight. They are inveſted with a high power of heating bodies, but with none of illuminating objects; and this explains the reaſon why they have hitherto eſcaped unnoticed.

" My preſent intention is, not to aſſign the angle of the leaſt refrangibility, belonging to theſe rays, for which purpoſe more accurate, repeated, and extended experiments are required. But, at the diſtance of 52 inches from the priſm, there was ſtill a conſiderable heating power exerted by our inviſible rays, one inch and a half beyond the red ones, meaſured upon their projection on a horizontal plane. I have no doubt but that their efficacy may be traced ſtill ſomewhat farther.

" The fifth and ſixth experiments ſhew, that the power of heating is extended to the utmoſt limits of the viſible violet rays, but not beyond them; and that it is gradually impaired, as the rays grow more refrangible.

" The four laſt experiments prove, that the maximum of the heating power is veſted among the inviſible rays; and is probably not leſs than half an inch beyond the laſt viſible ones, when projected in the manner before-mentioned. The ſame experiments alſo ſhew, that the ſun's inviſible rays, in their leſs refrangible ſtate, and conſiderably beyond the maximum, ſtill exert a heating power fully equal to that of red coloured light; and that, conſequently, if we may infer the quantity of the efficient from the effect produced, the inviſible rays of the ſun probably far exceed the viſible ones in number.

" To conclude, if we call *light*, thoſe rays which illuminate objects, and *radiant heat*, thoſe which heat bodies, it may be inquired, whether light be eſſentially different from radiant heat? In anſwer to which I would ſuggeſt, that we are not allowed, by the rules of philoſophizing, to admit two different cauſes to explain certain effects, if they may be accounted for by one. A beam of radiant heat, emanating from the ſun, conſiſts of rays that are differently refrangible. The range of their extent, when diſperſed by a priſm, begins at violet coloured light, where they are moſt refracted, and have the leaſt efficacy. We have traced theſe calorific rays throughout the whole extent of the priſmatic ſpectrum; and found their power increaſing, while their refrangibility was leſſened, as far as to the confines of red-coloured light. But their diminiſhing refrangibility, and increaſing power, did not ſtop here; for we have purſued them a conſiderable way beyond the *priſmatic ſpectrum*, into an inviſible ſtate, ſtill exerting their increaſing energy, with a decreaſe of refrangibility up to the maximum of their power; and have alſo traced them to that ſtate where, though ſtill leſs refracted, their energy, on account, we may ſuppoſe, of their now failing denſity, decreaſed pretty faſt; after which, the inviſible *thermometrical ſpectrum*, if I may ſo call it, ſoon vaniſhed.

" If this be a true account of ſolar heat, for the ſupport of which I appeal to my experiments, it remains only for us to admit, that ſuch

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of the rays of the ſun as have the refrangibility of thoſe which are contained in the priſmatic ſpectrum, by the conſtruction of the organ of ſight, are admitted, under the appearance of light and colours; and that the reſt, being ſtopped in the coats and humours of the eye, act upon them, as they are known to do upon all other parts of our body, by occaſioning a ſenſation of heat."

XV. *Experiments on the ſolar, and on the terreſtrial Rays that occaſion Heat; with a comparative View of the Laws to which Light and Heat, or rather the Rays which occaſion them, are ſubject, in Order to determine whether they are the ſame, or different.* By William Herſchel, LL. D. F. R. S.

This third, and elaborate paper, by the ſame author, may be conſidered as a continuation of the preceding ſubject. It contains a conſiderable number of experiments, it determines ſeveral remarkable particulars, and the whole is intermixed with proper and inſtructive reaſoning.

Dr. Herſchel begins, by declaring the meaning of what he calls *the rays that occaſion heat;* namely, that by this he does not mean to adopt, or to allude to any theory, either of the emanation of a calorific fluid, or of the communication of motion to a fluid, which is diſperſed throughout ſpace, and which may be cauſed to produce heat by a particular agitation, &c.

He then diſtinguiſhes heat into ſix different kinds; namely, three *ſolar*, and three *terreſtrial*; but as the latter ſtrictly reſemble the former, he reduces the number to three; namely, 1. that which we receive directly from the ſun, or may obtain by the flame of torches, lamps, candles, &c. 2. The heat of coloured radiants, which is obtained by ſeparating the rays of the ſun with a priſm, or by having recourſe to culinary fires. 3. The heat of radiants, which yield neither light nor colours.

Since the object of this paper is to give a comparative view of the operations that may be performed on the rays that occaſion heat, and of thoſe which can be effected on thoſe that occaſion light, Dr. H. has thought proper to make a recapitulation of ſeveral facts which relate to the latter. This ſtatement is followed by the account of twenty experiments, which were performed with different inſtruments, and the apparatus is accurately delineated on five plates.

With reſpect to the reſult of thoſe experiments, of which we ſhall ſubjoin the titles, it is only in our power to ſay in general that they prove, beyond a doubt, that the rays which occaſion heat, both ſolar and terreſtrial, are in every ſtate ſubject to the laws of reflection, and to the laws of refraction.

Exp. 1.

Exp. 1. Reflection of the heat of the ſun.
2. Reflection of the heat of a candle.
3. Reflection of the heat that accompanies the ſolar priſmatic colours.
4. Reflection of the heat of a red-hot poker.
5. Reflection of the heat of a coal fire, by a plain mirror.
6. Reflection of fire-heat, by a priſm.
7. Reflection of inviſible ſolar heat.
8. Reflection and condenſation of the inviſible ſolar rays.
9. Reflection of inviſible culinary heat.
10. Reflection of the inviſible rays of heat of a poker, cooled from being red-hot till it could no longer be ſeen in a dark place.
11. Refraction of ſolar heat.
12. Refraction of the heat of a candle.
13. Refraction of the heat that accompanies the coloured part of the priſmatic ſpectrum.
14. Refraction of the heat of a chimney-fire.
15. Refraction of the heat of a red-hot iron.
16. Refraction of fire-heat, by an inſtrument reſembling a teleſcope.
17. Refraction of the inviſible rays of ſolar heat.
18. Trial to render the inviſible rays of the ſun viſible by condenſation.
19. Refraction of inviſible culinary heat.
20. Confirmation of the 19th experiment.

XVI. *Chemical Experiments on Zoophytes; with ſome Obſervations on the component Parts of Membrane.* By Charles Hatchett, Eſq. F. R. S.

Mr. Hatchett has beſtowed much labour on the analyſis of ſhell and bone, as appears from his papers which have been publiſhed in the Phil. Tranſ. previous to the preſent volume. The preſent rather long and elaborate paper is a continuation of the ſame ſubject. It is divided into three parts; namely, 1ſt. Experiments on Zoophytes; 2dly. Obſervations on the foregoing Experiments; and, 3dly. Obſervations on the component Parts of Membrane. To all which is prefixed, a ſhort Statement of the principal Facts, which had already been eſtabliſhed relatively to the nature of ſhells, cruſtaceous ſubſtances, and bones.

The experiments of the firſt part were performed on the following ſubſtances, which were treated with acids and other

ſaline

ſaline ſubſtances.—Madrepora virginea, Madrepora muriatica, Madrepora labyrinthica, Madrepora ramea, Madrepora faſcicularis, Millepora cœrulea, Millepora alcicornis, Millepora polymorpha, Millepora celluloſa, Millepora faſcialis, Millepora truncata, Tubipora muſica, Fluſtra foliacea, Coralſipa opuntia, Iſis ochracea, Iſis hippuris, Gorgonia nobilis, Gorgonia ceratophyta, Gorgonia flabellum, Gorgonia ſuberoſa, Gorgonia pectinata, Gorgonia ſetoſa, Gorgonia umbraculum, Gorgonia verrucoſa, Gorgonia antipathes, Antipathes ulex, Antipathes myriophylla, Sponges, Alcyonium aſbeſtinum, Alcyonium ficus, and Alcyonium arboreum.

In the ſecond part, this author obſerves, that the minutiæ of analyſis did not form part of his plan,

"which was only to ſketch an outline, comprehending the moſt prominent chemical characteriſtics of certain bodies appertaining to the animal kingdom, which hitherto had been but little or not at all examined; ſo that this outline (although defective) might ſerve as a chain of connection, and as baſis, upon which a more perfect ſuperſtructure may in future be gradually raiſed; and it appeared evident that this would be moſt eaſily and ſpeedily executed, by following a ſyſtematical and comparative plan."

Mr. H. then collects into a ſmall compaſs the reſult of numerous experiments, from which

"there is reaſon to conclude, that the varieties of bone, ſhell, coral, and the numerous tribe of zoophytes with which the laſt are connected, only differ in compoſition by the nature and quantity of the hardening or oſſifying principle, and by the ſtate of the ſubſtance with which it is mixed or connected. For the gluten or jelly which cements the particles of carbonate or phoſphate of lime, and the membrane, cartilage, or horny ſubſtance, which ſerves as a baſis, in and upon which the oſſifying matter is ſecreted and depoſited, ſeem to be only modifications of the ſame ſubſtance, which progreſſively graduates, from a vivid liquid or gluten, into that gelatinous ſubſtance which has ſo often been noticed, and which again, by increaſed inſpiſſation, and by the various and more or leſs perfect degrees of organic arrangement, forms the varieties of membrane, cartilage, and horn."

The obſervations on the component parts of membrane, which form the third part of this paper, are not ſuſceptible of much abridgment; for ſuch particulars, therefore, we muſt refer our readers to the paper itſelf.

XVII. *On the Electricity excited by the mere Contact of conducting Subſtances of different Kinds.* By Mr. Alexander Volta, F. R. S. &c.

This maſterly paper of Profeſſor Volta is printed in the French language, without any tranſlation into the Engliſh.

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The effects ſimilar to thoſe of electricity, which are produced by the ſimple application of metallic ſubſtances to animal bodies, were diſcovered a few years ago by the famous Galvani, and are generally known under the appellation of Galvaniſm. The ſingular nature of that diſcovery engaged various ſcientific perſons in the inveſtigation and improvement of that ſubject; and in this purſuit no one has been more aſſiduous, nor more deſervedly fortunate, than the learned author of the paper which is at preſent under our conſideration.

The diſcovery, which is announced in this paper, ſeems to be of very great conſequence in philoſophy. It opens a vaſt field of experimental inveſtigation; it explains a variety of hitherto myſterious phænomena; and it furniſhes the ſcientific world with a ſingular electrical machine, which acts without being put in motion, and which, of courſe, when once prepared, will remain in action for ſeveral hours, and even two or three days, without requiring any manual labour.

After a variety of experiments, which Mr. Volta had performed during ſome years, he was at laſt enabled to conſtruct the above-mentioned ſimple machine, the general conſtruction of which we ſhall ſubjoin in his own words.

"Le principal de ces réſultats, et qui comprend à-peu-près tous les autres, eſt la conſtruction d'un appareil qui reſſemble pour les effets, c'eſt-à-dire pour les commotions qu'il eſt capable de faire éprouver dans les bras, &c. aux bouteilles de Leyde, et mieux encore aux batteries électriques foiblement chargées, qui agiroient cependant ſans ceſſe, ou dont la charge, après chaque exploſion, ſe rétabliroit d'elle-même; qui jouiroit, en un mot, d'une charge indéfectible, d'une action ſur le fluide électrique, ou impulſion, perpétuelle; mais qui d'ailleurs en diffère eſſentiellement, et par cette action continuelle qui lui eſt propre, et parcequ'au lieu de conſiſter, comme les bouteilles et batteries électriques ordinaires, en une ou pluſieurs lames iſolantes, en couches minces de ces corps cenſés être les ſeuls *électriques*, armées de conducteurs ou corps ainſi dit *non-électriques*, ce nouvel appareil eſt formé uniquement de pluſieurs de ces derniers corps, choiſis même entre les meilleurs conducteurs, et par là les plus éloignés, ſuivant ce qu'on a toujours cru, de la nature électrique. Oui, l'appareil dont je vous parle, et qui vous étonnera ſans doute, n'eſt que l'aſſemblage d'un nombre de bons conducteurs de différente eſpèce, arrangés d'une certaine manière 30, 40, 60 pièces ou d'avantage, de cuivre, ou mieux d'argent; appliquées chacune à une pièce d'étain, ou, ce qui eſt beaucoup mieux, de zinc, et un nombre égal de couches d'eau, ou de quelque autre humeur qui ſoit meilleur conducteur que l'eau ſimple, comme l'eau ſalée, la leſſive, &c. ou des morceaux de carton, de peau, &c. bien imbibes de ces humeurs; de telles couches interpoſées à chaque couple ou combinaiſon des deux métaux différents, une telle ſuite alternative, et toujours dans le même ordre, de ces trois eſpèces de conducteurs, voilà tout ce qui conſtitue mon nouvel inſtrument; qui imite,

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comme j'ai dit, les effets des bouteilles de Leyde, ou des batteries électriques, en donnant les mêmes commotions que celles-ci ; qui, à la vérité, reſte beaucoup au-deſſous de l'activité des dites batteries chargées à un haut point, quant à la force et au bruit des exploſions, à l'étincelle, à la diſtance à laquelle peut s'opérer la décharge, &c. égalant ſeulement les effets d'une batterie chargée à un degré très-foible, d'une batterie pourtant ayant une capacité immenſe ; mais qui d'ailleurs ſurpaſſe infiniment la vertu et le pouvoir de ces mêmes batteries, en ce qu'il n'a pas beſoin, comme elles, d'être chargé d'advance, au moyen d'une électricité étrangère ; et en ce qu'il eſt capable de donner la commotion, toutes les fois qu'on le touche convenablement, quelque fréquents que ſoient ces attouchements."

After this general ſketch, Mr. V. deſcribes two of the moſt advantageous methods of diſpoſing the above-mentioned conducting ſubſtances ; and a delineation of the ſame is contained in a ſingle plate, which accompanies the paper. He alſo gives a variety of uſeful hints towards the further improvement of ſuch machines.

The power of this apparatus ſeems capable of being increaſed to any degree. Thus, if a pillar be conſtructed, by placing twenty or thirty couples of metallic conductors, one upon the other, with the interpoſition of water, or of ſome ſpungy ſubſtance, which is thoroughly imbibed with water, between any two couples ; and then you apply one hand to the lower, and the other hand to the upper part of the pillar, a ſlight ſhock will be perceived in the fingers only. If the pillar conſiſts of fifty or ſixty couples of metallic conductors, &c. the ſhock will be felt as high as the wriſts, or even higher ; and when the pillar conſiſts of ninety or one hundred couples, &c, the ſhock will be ſtronger than perhaps many perſons will like to feel.

Even when the machine conſiſts of not more than twenty couples of metallic conductors, it is capable of affecting an electrometer, provided a condenſer be uſed, which, receiving the electric influence from the machine, imparts it in a condenſed ſtate to the electrometer.

When the machine conſiſts of about forty couples of conductors, it is capable of affording a ſpark whenever it is touched with a pointed conductor.

Thus all the principal and leading phænomena of electricity are exhibited by a ſet of conductors only.—Thus it appears, that the electric fluid is put in motion without any ſenſible motion of the bodies which cauſe it to circulate. And ſince ſuch diſpoſitions of conductors muſt naturally exiſt within the body of the earth, as well as on its ſurface, the philoſopher may thence derive the explanation of a variety of phænomena,

which, previous to this diſcovery, were involved in darkneſs and uncertainty. But the moſt ſtriking phænomena, which may be explained by means of this property of conductors, are thoſe of the torpedo, electrical eel, and other electric ſea-animals:

" A quelle électricité donc," ſays Mr. V. " a quel inſtrument, doit-il être comparé, cet organe de la torpille, de l'anguille tremblante, &c. ? à celui que je vien de conſtruire, d'après le nouveau principe d'électricité qua j'ai découvert il y a quelque années, et que mes expériences ſucceſſives, ſur-tout celles qui m'occupent maintenant, ont ſi bien confirmé, ſavoir, que les conducteurs ſont auſſi, dans certains cas, moteurs d'électricité, dans le cas du contact mutuel de ceux de différente eſpèce, &c. à cet apparail, que j'ai nommé *Organe* électrique artificiel, et qui, étant dans le fond le même que l'organe naturel de la torpille, le reſſemble encore pour la forme, comme j'ai déjà avancé."

XVIII. *Some Obſervations on the Head of the Ornithorhynchus paradoxus.* By Everard Home, Eſq. F. R. S.

The contents of this paper, being deſcriptions of parts of the head of the animal, cannot be conveniently abridged, nor can thoſe parts be eaſily deſcribed without the two plates which accompany the paper. But our readers may be informed of the nature of its contents by the following paragraphs, which form the beginning of the paper.

" The ſpecimens of this extraordinary animal which have been ſent to Europe, have been deprived of the internal parts, and the ſkins are moſtly dried, and but badly preſerved. Such imperfect ſpecimens have raiſed the curioſity of the naturaliſt, and excited the ardour of the anatomiſt, without ſatisfying their inquiries.

" It was natural, under theſe circumſtances, to reſerve any obſervations which had been made upon this newly diſcovered quadruped, till the entire animal ſhould be brought home preſerved in ſpirits, and enable us to examine the ſtructure of its different organs; but, finding that Profeſſor Blumenbach has been led to believe that it was an animal without teeth, an opinion which muſt have ariſen from the imperfect ſtate of the ſpecimen he examined, it appeared highly proper to do away the miſtake, and lay before this learned Society ſuch obſervations reſpecting the head of this extraordinary animal, as I have been enabled to make."

We ſhall here conclude our account of a part of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, ſingularly rich in diſcoveries, which are not only important in themſelves, but evidently open new fields of enquiry for the advantageous employment of philoſophers in every country of Europe.

ART.

ART. VIII. *Reflections on the Political and Moral State of Society, at the Close of the Eighteenth Century. By John Bowles, Esq. Author of Reflections on the Political State of Society, at the Commencement of the Year* 1800, *&c. &c.* 174 and 92 pp. 5s. Rivingtons.

IN the present position of Europe, when a volcano of impiety has burst forth in France, almost "frightening the isle from her propriety*," and actually convulsing the continent to its very centre, the public will be ever ready to hear such a writer as Mr. Bowles, to be moved by his persuasions, and to be convinced by his reasonings. We have seen "the fountains of the great deep" of impiety, broken up by the hands of flagitious republicanism. We have also seen "the windows of heaven" opened, to rain down miseries added to miseries, upon the heads of an apostate nation: and we cannot but listen therefore to a writer like Mr. Bowles, who seems to stand the foremost of all our writers against the enormities of France, since the death of Mr. Burke, as possessing a portion of his master's fire, and directing his energy yet more in behalf of religion.

Mr. Bowles's work is divided into three parts. The first respects the rejection of Bonaparte's overtures for peace at the commencement of the year 1800. The second dwells upon the general and pervading spirit of profligacy, in the revolution of France. But the third returns again to a particular point, begins a fresh course of pages, and considers the origin of the war, as stated by Talleyrand in Bonaparte's overtures. The first of these we will consider in the present article.

"The above considerations," says Mr. Bowles (when he has stated three, the danger of inducing Russia to recede from the confederacy, the danger of dissolving the whole confederacy, and the danger resulting from the unsettled power as well as the personal character of Bonaparte;)

"were surely more than sufficient to induce even the most credulous to suspect, that in pretending to hold out the olive branch, Buonaparte in reality only tendered a bough of the poisonous tree of liberty. If however, in spite of so many reasons to induce a contrary opinion, he had really been actuated by a wish to restore to mankind the blessings of peace; if it was indeed his intention to suffer Europe to enjoy security, and independence; it was easy, and it would have been natural for him, in the letters which contained his

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* Othello.

overtures,

overtures, to present such prospects to the view. He must have known both the suspicion which was attached to his situation, as the head of a republic, which had excited the terror of the world, and the additional alarm and distrust which accompanied the mention of his own name: consequently, if his views had been truly pacific, he would have endeavoured to inspire Europe with confidence, by an express renunciation of the foreign system of France; and by an assurance, that as a ruler he meant to observe the long-established principles of civil society, to which as a general he had shewn himself so dangerous and determined an enemy; and that he was willing to restore the balance of Europe, which was essential to the general security, on condition only that he should be allowed to retain the Gallic sceptre. Some intimations of this sort were the least that could be expected from him, in case his views were really favourable to the general tranquillity. But, in his overtures to the British government, nothing of the kind is to be found. Those overtures, indeed, abound with the most pathetic lamentations on the ravages of war, and with animated description of the benefits and glory of peace. But they do not go beyond some inflated *phrases* of that description. They do not afford the least ground to hope, that the First Consul intended any change of system; that it was his inclination to respect the authority of other governments, and the independence of other states; that, under his reign, society would cease to have any thing to apprehend from the disorganizing principles of the French republic; that the decrees of fraternity would at length be repealed; that, governed by him, France would confine her attention to her own affairs, without intermeddling with the domestic concerns of other countries; that she would again recognize the laws of nations; and that she would be satisfied, if peace could be made on such terms, with limits which might be compatible with that balance of power, for the formation and preservation of which Europe had sustained so many contests. The total neglect of Buonaparte to give any such assurances, must convince every impartial mind, that his professions of a desire for peace were fraudulent; that he meant to adhere to the known system of the republic; that the same revolutionary zeal inspired the First Consul, as had animated the conqueror of Italy, and the invader of Egypt." P. 7.

Such assurances, after such conduct, were so obviously requisite, that the omission of them infers all that the worst enemy of Bonaparte can possibly infer from it. They were indeed so requisite, that we stand amazed, on a calm review of the whole, by the light which Mr. Bowles has here thrown upon it, that the assurances were not given, even if meant only to be given insidiously. Yet this is not the first time in the history of French republicanism, when her turbulence has been at open war with her insidiousness; when her bravery would not stoop to deceive; and when her insolence, usefully for Europe, compelled a continuance of the war, which her hypocrisy professed a wish to terminate.

"But it is not," adds Mr. Bowles, "by negative proof alone, however ſtrong and concluſive, that the pacific profeſſions of the new government of France are ſhewn to be perfidious. The letters, which were addreſſed to the Britiſh government, contain internal evidence of the moſt poſitive and unequivocal kind, that nothing was farther from the mind of Buonaparte, than a deſire of reſtoring peace to the world. The avowed object of the overture, as explained in the firſt of thoſe letters, was *a general pacification*. Now when a number of powers are confederated in war, againſt either a ſingle power or another confederacy, the natural, the obvious, the accuſtomed mode of effecting a general pacification, is *a general congreſs* We ſhould look, therefore, to the diſpatches of Buonaparte, for a propoſition of that ſort as a matter of courſe, if he really deſired a general pacification. But in his letters on this occaſion there is not the moſt diſtant alluſion, to the only meaſure calculated for the attainment of the end, which he profeſſed to have in view. This is, doubtleſs, very ſuſpicious. But ſuſpicion is exchanged for certainty, when we read the ſubſequent letter of Talleyrand. For in that letter the miniſter waves all idea of the *general* pacification, which his Majeſty had declared to be the object of his overture; and without even noticing either the Allies, with which his Britannic Majeſty was known to be in cloſe union, or the Spaniſh Monarch with whom he was at war, propoſes to put an immediate end of hoſtilities by agreeing to a ſuſpenſion of arms, and naming plenipotentiaries on each ſide, who ſhould repair to Dunkirk, or any other town advantageouſly ſituated for the quickneſs of reſpective communications, and who ſhould apply themſelves without any delay to effect the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and good underſtanding *between the French republic and England*. Such is the inconſiſtency between the Firſt Conſul and his Miniſter. The former talks, though in the moſt indefinite terms, of *a general pacification*; the latter propoſes a *ſeparate negociation*, than which nothing could be more unfavourable to a *general* peace, and an immediate armiſtice, of which (conſidering the comparative ſtate of the naval force, and of the commerce of the two countries,) the whole benefit would have remained with France, and which would have been productive of the greateſt diſadvantage to Great Britain*. Such evident marks of duplicity prove to a demonſtration, the propriety of the rejection of the firſt overture, and the neceſſity there was of rejecting the ſecond. When men convict themſelves of contradiction and falſehood, it would be madneſs to confide in their profeſſions, or to comply with their deſires." P. 8.

"* The very important circumſtance, that an immediate naval armiſtice was one of the propoſitions contained in the overture of the Firſt Conſul, has not been noticed as it deſerves. With a recollection of that circumſtance, let the people of this country judge of the ſincerity of the pacific profeſſions of Buonaparte, and of the propriety of the conduct of the Britiſh government in rejecting his advances. They will be the better able to form their opinion on thoſe ſubjects, in conſequence of the attention they have recently paid to the *diſtinct* queſtion of a naval armiſtice."

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The contradictory nature of the two propositions is so great and glaring, as to strike every mind with a feeling of it. But the first proposition was brought forward, merely as a stalking-horse to the second. The political fowler was to take his station between the legs of *that*, merely to take his aim at *this*. Nor was even *this* his grand aim. When he had brought this within the reach of his shot, he would then (as his more recent conduct has shown us) have directed his whole attention to Austria, and have made (as he is now making) a separate truce with her. So much was this overture for peace, in the first moments of it, all artifice, duplicity, and hypocrisy!

"It should not escape notice," Mr. Bowles proceeds accordingly to say, "that the proposal of Talleyrand to treat for a separate peace, followed directly an intimation on the part of Lord Grenville, that his Britannic Majesty would only treat, whenever an opportunity should offer, *in concert with his allies*. To propose therefore a separate treaty, was to propose what it was known would not be acceded to; and afforded a strong additional proof, that no serious thoughts of peace were entertained. Indeed the omission of all mention of a general congress, when a wish for general pacification was expressed; and the offer of separate negociation, when it had been declared by the other party, that no treaty would be entered into, but in concert with allies; evinced not only a desire to obtain false credit for a pacific disposition, but a studious endeavour to avoid any distinct or practicable proposition leading to negociation, lest by possibility it should be accepted." P. 11.

In this conclusion, we most cordially agree. A proposal for *general* pacification was made and accepted. Then a proposal for *particular* pacification was substituted for the other, without any notice of the substitution; even though the former had been accepted, with an express preclusion of the latter: and, had the second been accepted as the first was, a third assuredly would have been offered, that had been equally precluded as the second. The whole was plainly nothing but a farce, exhibited by that manager of the great theatre of France, to answer his own secret purposes.

"Nor are the overtures of Buonaparte destitute of evidence, of his adherence to the Jacobinical principles and practices of the French republic. Of this a more convincing, and indeed a more insulting proof, can scarcely be conceived, than that ostentatious and unnecessary display of Jacobinical forms, which appears at the head of his epistle to the British Monarch. Fearful (as it were) lest a doubt should arise respecting the character which he meant to assume; lest some hope should arise, that in the exercise of his new authority he might conform to the principles of social order, he prefixed to that epistle, in the most conspicuous manner, the Jacobinical insignia of "the Sovereignty of the People, Liberty, Equality." What more solemn pledge could he give, of a fixed determination to adhere to the revolutionary system of France?

France? How could he more clearly display his inveterate hostility to all established government, than by such an avowal of principles, which had been instruments of destruction to half the governments of Europe, and which were at open and irreconcileable enmity with all legitimate authority? It was not a *domestic* concern, in which he was then engaged. He was addressing his first public act to a *foreign* power. He was making an OVERTURE FOR PEACE. Could any thing prove more strongly that it was a *Jacobinical* peace which he had in contemplation, than his taking such an opportunity of displaying the *Jacobinical* banners of the republic? Nay, he did not content himself with exhibiting on those banners the ordinary emblems of republican France; he chose, in honour no doubt to his accession, to blazon her escutcheon with a new quartering, and to ornament her shield with the device of "THE SOVEREIGNTY OF THE PEOPLE," the most Jacobinical of all Jacobinical symbols; which, though it had been the fundamental principle of her revolutionary code, had not till then been entered upon her armorial bearings." Ibid.

This *gratuitous* adoption of that *super-addition* to the ensigns of republicanism, was plainly intended to announce an *extraordinary* hostility to our monarchy, and to frighten us by the very exhibition from *any* negociation under it. So much at odds were the emblems in the front with the proposals in the rear! With so much solicitude did the very proposer of peace provide for our disgust, at the very sight of his proposals!

To this letter from Bonaparte a reply was made officially by Lord Grenville, and an answer returned by Talleyrand.

"If a sincere desire for peace," Mr. Bowles goes on to remark, "had been the inducement with Buonaparte thus to continue the correspondence, it is impossible that he should not have endeavoured to shew, that the obstacles which Lord Grenville had represented as precluding all hope of real advantage from negociation, did not really exist; that the system of destruction, by which the French republic had excited so much alarm, was no longer pursued; that Europe had nothing to fear, from the principles of the new government of France; and that the authority of the First Consul was as compatible with the security of Great Britain and her allies, as that of the line of Princes, the restoration of which Lord Grenville had stated to be the most certain and speedy means of re-establishing general tranquillity. But the reply of the Ex-Bishop is of a very different nature. It is in fact a complete and a laboured demonstration, that all the impediments to peace which had been enumerated by Lord Grenville, continued in full force. In that reply, the new government of France takes especial care to identify itself with all the factions, which during the whole revolution have tyrannized over France, and molested the rest of Europe. By attempting to justify, it avows its approbation of the conduct of those factions; and it adopts and repeats the various pretexts by which they had endeavoured to deceive other states; it even presumes to boast of the early proclamation made by them on the part of the republic, of *a love of peace*, of *a disinclination for conquest*, of *a respect*

for

for the independence of all governments, and this at a time when every quarter of the globe has been convinced by direful experience, that perfidy alone dictated thoſe declarations. Nay, it dares to aſſert, that France was *occupied entirely with her own affairs*, and that ſhe was *diſpoſed to avoid taking part in thoſe of Europe*; in ſpite of the accumulated evidence by which it is demonſtrated, that it was the fundamental principle of her revolution, to propagate over the whole earth her principles of licentiouſneſs and anarchy, to excite the people of every country to revolt, and to ſubvert all eſtabliſhed authority, and all the inſtitutions of ſociety. The repetition of ſuch audacious falſehoods, after the events which have occurred, is marked (if poſſible) with ſtill blacker characters of atrocity than their firſt promulgation. Such a repetition is an inſult to the underſtanding and feelings of mankind; and it denotes *that* confirmed and matured depravity, which can only be produced by the habitual perpetration of the groſſeſt crimes." P. 18.

Mr. Bowles thus cloſes the preſent argument, in a manner peculiarly pointed and keen; peculiarly calculated to convince the heads, and to gain the hearts of his readers.

All theſe reaſonings appear to us ſo concluſive in themſelves, and ſet the tranſactions of our government in ſo juſt a light, that we could not, in our own opinion, promote the cauſe of the conſtitution, and diſplay the merit of Mr. Bowles, better than by confining ourſelves to this ſingle topic, and exhibiting his arguments upon it in one regular view. Theſe, by their variety, ſhow us the doubles that have been made by the Republicans of France in this mock offer of peace; while the right line that they ſhould have followed is running by the ſide of them, and makes their deflections more apparent by its own directneſs. We muſt therefore thank Mr. Bowles for ourſelves, and for the public, that on a ſubject, upon which *ſome* have preſumed ſo raſhly to cenſure the conduct of our own government, he has thrown a luſtre of illumination, ſo ſtrong, yet ſo ſteady, that it muſt force even thoſe to *feel* who *will* not *ſee*; compel them to feel the ſun flaſhing through the very eye-lids which they are determined to ſhut againſt its beams.

(To be continued.)

ART. IX. *The Sovereign. Addreſſed to his Imperial Majeſty, Paul, Emperor of all the Ruſſias. By Charles Small Pybus, M. P. One of the Lords Commiſſioners of the Treaſury.* Imperial Folio £1 11s. 6d. White. 1800.

THE beſt-tempered critic, in his very beſt-tempered mood, would certainly pronounce this a whimſical production. An elaborate eulogium upon one ſovereign potentate, dedicated

to another, while between the two there never was, nor ever can be, any more affinity or reſemblance, than between wiſdom and folly, or between any two things or perſons, the moſt hoſtile or contradictory that can be imagined, may well excite ſurpriſe and aſtoniſhment.

The character, nevertheleſs, of the writer, places him far beyond the reach of all undue motives of conduct. Under this impreſſion, we give the following two ſhort ſpecimens. The firſt is the Introduction.

" O thou great monarch of a powerful reign,
That more than doubles Europe's whole domain!
Whom larger empires own their ſovereign lord,
Than ever bow'd benea h the Macedonian ſword;
Or gaz'd with trembling at the awful ſight,
Of Rome's proud eagle in its utmoſt flight!
Say, can the ſceptre's blaze, the golden globe,
The brilliant diadem, the gorgeous robe,
The courtly pageant, and the ſplendid train,
The ſtrength of navies riding on the main;
The iron frontier, the embattled coaſt,
The waving banner, and the glitt'ring hoſt;
The dread ſalute of cannon thundering loud,
The proſtrate homage of a ſuppliant crowd;
Can all the pomp of power and wealth combin'd,
Raiſe up one genuine tranſport in the mind,
With balmy ſoothings tranquillize the breaſt,
Or give the ſlumbers of contented reſt?
No, none of theſe can ſooth the troubled frown,
Or lull the cares that lurk beneath a crown.
Weak in themſelves, alone their rays diſpenſe
Fallacious ſeemings to the outward ſenſe;
Their mental influence depends on this,
Are theſe the object, or the means of bliſs?
But happy they, thrice happy, who profeſs
Their greateſt bleſſing is the power to bleſs,
Delight in mercy, ſtudy to be juſt,
And hold their ſceptre as a ſacred truſt:
Not as the tyrant's perſecuting rod,
But as the gracious inſtrument of God.
Where can Ambition find ſo ſure a way,
To change a partial into general ſway?
For when the duties of his high eſtate
Fill all his thoughts, his actions regulate,
Like him whoſe worth adorns his Albion's throne,
The monarch reigns in realms beyond his own;
Through foreign latitudes his power extends,
And only terminates where virtue ends.
From every clime exulting millions pour
Their golden praiſe, his cumulating ſtore

- Swells

Swells with the best of wealth, and hourly draws
The countless tribute of a world's applause."

The few lines which succeed, are the most spirited perhaps of the whole performance.

" Illustrious shade! O, could thy soul infuse
Its faint resemblance in the anxious Muse;
Then in sublimer song her voice should raise
Strains less unequal to her hero's praise.
But what at last avails the poet's fire?
Vain are his honours, and his boasted lyre:
Vain is the laurel that adorns his brow:
Vain are his numbers: nor can all bestow,
But from their deathless theme alone receive
The fame, not e'en Mæonides could give.
Since then establish'd glory thus defies
The power of poesy, that never dies,
How much more vain are offerings alone,
Compos'd of perishable brass and stone;
Tho' quarries were consum'd, and millions spent,
When the whole empire forms one monument?"

This country could never boast of a specimen of typography more superb and magnificent, than is exhibited in the present publication: A most elegant engraving of the Imperial Crown of Russia, a very highly finished portrait of the author; paper, types, ink, with all the succedanea of typographical excellence, place this work proudly out of the reach of competition. The author little thought of the change about to take place in the sentiments and conduct of the individual, in whose praise he has been so lavish; or he would assuredly have spared himself much ill-timed trouble and expence, and have deprived those who judge of such things less indulgently than ourselves, of so fair an occasion of sneer and ridicule.

ART. X. *The true History of the Conquest of Mexico.*

(Continued from our last, p. 36.)

WE left Cortes on the road to Mexico. His new allies advised him to march by the province of Tlascala, which, besides being fertile in grain, and other articles of which the Spaniards stood much in need, was extremely hostile to the Mexicans, whose power they nearly equalled, and whose incroachments they vigorously opposed.

On their route, they croſſed a ſmall diſtrict belonging to Montezuma. Cortes did not loſe ſo favourable an opportunity of renewing his enquiries reſpecting that Prince. The paſſage is curious.

"Appearances demonſtrated that we had entered into a new country, for the temples were very lofty, and together with the terraced dwellings, and the houſes of the cacique, being plaiſtered and whitewaſhed, appeared very well, and reſembled ſome of our towns in Spain. We named this place Caſtel Blanco. In conſequence of our meſſage, the chief, and other principal perſons of the town, came out to meet us, and took us to our quarters, where they gave us paltry and cold entertainment. After ſupper, Cortes made enquiry relative to the military power of Montezuma. He was informed, how that monarch had under him great armies, and that the city of Mexico was of uncommon ſtrength, being founded in the water, and no paſſage from one houſe to another except by bridges or boats; that each houſe was terraced, and only required a parapet to be converted into a fortreſs; that the entrance to the city was by three cauſeways, in each of which were four or five apertures for the paſſage of the waters, and that on each of theſe apertures was a bridge of wood, which being raſed, precluded the entrance into Mexico. We were alſo informed of the great wealth of Montezuma, in gold, ſilver, and jewels, the hearing of which filled us with aſtoniſhment; and ſuch is the nature of Spaniſh ſoldiers, that we were anxious to try our fortunes, although the accounts we had been given, made our hopes appear almoſt viſionary; and truly we found Mexico ſtronger than what it was now deſcribed to us. The cacique launched out alſo in the praiſes of his great lord, Montezuma, ſaying, that he ruled wherever it was his will to do ſo, and that he was apprehenſive of his diſſatisfaction at our being entertained in that place, without his licence. To all this Cortes replied, ſaying, "That we came from a diſtant country, by the orders of our ſovereign, to warn the great Montezuma to deſiſt from human ſacrifices, and all outrages either upon his own vaſſals, or his neighbours, and to require from him ſubmiſſion to our monarch. And," added Cortes, "I now require you all who hear me, to renounce your human ſacrifices, cannibal feaſts, and other abominable practices, for ſuch is the command of our Lord God, whom we adore and believe, who gives us life and death, and who is to raiſe him up to heaven." All this the natives heard with a profound ſilence, and Cortes then turning to the ſoldiers, propoſed to them immediately to plant the holy croſs; but the Rev. Father Olmedo objected, upon the grounds of the ill-will and ignorance of the people, which might induce them to commit ſome outrage or indignity againſt that holy ſymbol; he therefore recommended that it ſhould be deferred until a better opportunity." P. 90.

As Cortes was accompanied by a number of Mexicans, and as the avowed purpoſe of his journey was a friendly viſit to Montezuma, the Tlaſcalans naturally concluded that his deſign was hoſtile to themſelves, and therefore determined to oppoſe his progreſs. They were a brave and reſolute people; but their

their deſultory movements were as ill-calculated to annoy a diſciplined body of Europeans, as their offenſive weapons, which conſiſted merely of clubs, wooden ſwords, and arrows headed with flint, were to contend with men caſed in iron, ſupported by ſeveral pieces of artillery, and accompanied by thoſe terrible animals, which ſpread confuſion, and alarm wherever they appeared. Such as they were, however, they effectually ſtopped the advances of Cortes, who was on the point of retreating, when the officers of his little army adviſed him to make one more ſerious attempt to conciliate (that is, to deceive) the Tlaſcalans; which was, it appears, but too ſucceſsful.

The laſt battle with this gallant nation is well deſcribed. It ſeems to have made a durable impreſſion on the veteran.

"On the fifth of September, 1519, having brought out our whole force not excepting the wounded, the croſs-bowmen and muſketeers being directed to fire alternately, ſo that there ſhould always be ſome of each loaded, the ſoldiers with ſword and buckler being ordered to uſe the points, paſſing them clear through the bodies of their opponents, and the cavalry being inſtructed to keep their ranks, and charge at half ſpeed, pointing their lances at the eyes of the enemy, and riding through them without halting to give thruſts, with our colours flying, and four of our companions as a guard upon them, we ſet out upon our march. We had not proceeded half a quarter of a league, when we ſaw the troops of the enemy covering the plains. Each body diſplayed its reſpective device, and they advanced, ſounding all their warlike inſtruments.

"Much might be written on the ſubject of this great and long-doubtful battle, where four hundred men ſtood oppoſed to hoſts, which ſurrounding them from all parts, filled theſe plains, extending in every direction for the ſpace of two leagues. Many of our ſmall number were ſick and wounded, and we knew that the enemy came upon us in a determination to ſweep us from the earth, and ſacrifice us to their idols. Their firſt diſcharges of arrows, ſtones, and two-headed darts which pierce any armour, and through the body where unprotected, covered the ground; and they continued advancing till they cloſed upon, and attacked us with their lances, and two-handed ſwords, fighting foot to foot, and encouraging each other by their cries and ſhouts. Our artillery, muſketry, and croſs-bows played on them, and the home-thruſts our infantry made with their ſwords, prevented their cloſing upon us as much as they had done on the former occaſion. Our cavalry alſo charged with ſuch effect, that, next to God, it was to them we owed the victory. At one period I ſaw our battalion completely broken, nor could all the exertions of Cortes for a time rally it, ſuch was the preſſure of the enemy upon us. By the ſole effect of our ſwords, however, we at length forced them off from us, and were then enabled to cloſe and form. One circumſtance that preſerved us was the thickneſs of the enemy, whereby full play was given to our artillery. Another was, that they did not know how to bring up their forces

forces upon us without confuſion, and ſome of the diviſions could not come to the attack at all. The one compoſed of the warriors of Guaxocingo, was prevented from engaging by Chichimecatecle, whom Xicotenga, the commander in chief, had provoked by ſome inſulting obſervation relative to the preceding battle. This circumſtance we were informed of afterwards. They were alſo apprehenſive by experience of our cavalry, our cannon, and other arms; but above all was the great mercy of God, who gave us force to ſuſtain their attacks. Two diviſions, as I have obſerved, ſtood aloof, from diſguſt at what Xicotenga had ſaid relative to the conduct of the ſon of Chichimecatecle on the former occaſion: this being obſerved by the others, ſlackened their ardour; and the loſs of one of their greateſt chiefs killed, at length cauſed them to draw off their forces and retire, purſued by our cavalry, though but for a very little diſtance, owing to their exceſſive fatigue. Thus being again maſters of the field, we returned our thanks to God for his mercy. One of our ſoldiers was killed, above ſeventy and all the horſes were wounded. I received two wounds, one by a ſtone, the other by an arrow; but they were not ſuch as to prevent my doing duty; indeed if wounds had exempted us, few would have been fit for it." P. 97.

It is clear from theſe, and numerous other incidents of the ſame nature, that if the natives of this country had poſſeſſed one weapon of a deſtructive kind, the Spaniards muſt have been all deſtroyed. There is ſcarcely a battle in which they are engaged, where the major part of them are not wounded. Theſe wounds, however, are not often dangerous, and ſcarcely ever prove fatal. Did Mexico produce no poiſonous ſubſtance?

After a ſhort ſtay at Tlaſcala, Cortes reſumed his march for Mexico, attended by thouſands of his late enemies, now converted into zealous friends. As he approached, Montezuma became more reſtleſs and alarmed; he ſent various ambaſſadors to ſtop, or divert his advances; but as each of theſe unfortunately brought gold to Cortes, as preſents, either for him or his officers, they had an effect directly contrary to what was intended, and only induced that General to haſten his march. Avarice, as we have already ſaid, had obtained the moſt complete poſſeſſion of his whole ſoul; and when gold was the object in view, he was blind to every other conſideration.

Cortes was not, however, in ſuch haſte, but that he ſtopped for a few days at Cholula, where he prepared himſelf for further cruelties, by a maſſacre of 6000 of the inhabitants, whom, by the deepeſt art, he had inveigled into an incloſed ſquare. The pretence for this atrocious act was, a ſilly ſtory of their intending to fall upon the Spaniards—which they had an undoubted right to do—and which Cortes pretended to believe, that, by having a plea for their deſtruction, he might weaken

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the power of Montezuma, of whom they were the faithful allies.

Before Cortes gave the ſignal for murdering the trembling wretches, whom he had ſhut up, he acquainted them with the charges brought againſt them by the Tlaſcalans, and others.

"This being ſucceſſively explained to the natives by Donna Marina, they confeſſed the whole of the charge, but ſaid that it was planned entirely by the orders of Montezuma. Cortes replied, that ſuch crimes were never ſuffered to paſs without puniſhment, and he then commanded a muſket to be fired, as the ſignal for ſlaughter, which was waited for by us, who were as I have related well prepared, and falling upon the multitude then incloſed within the courts, we executed their puniſhment on them in a manner that they will ever remember; for a number of them were killed by us inſtantly, and many afterwards burned alive, very contrary to the expectations they had formed from the promiſes of their gods*. Within two hours our allies the Tlaſcalans arrived, and made a deſperate ſlaughter of them in the ſtreets, and as ſoon as the Cholulans had ceaſed to make reſiſtance, the former ravaged the city, plundering and making them ſlaves without our having it in our power to prevent them; and on the day after, when the intelligence had reached Tlaſcala, freſh hordes crowded hither for the ſame purpoſe." P. 122.

This maſſacre, which ſhocked the Court of Spain, filled the whole country with horror, when the details of it were afterwards given by the good Biſhop of Chiapa. In alluſion to this, the author ſays,

"This which I have related is the reality of the endleſs ſtory of the Lord Biſhop of Chiapa, F. Bart. de las Caſas, who ſays we put theſe people to death merely for paſtime; but I muſt obſerve, that certain reverend Franciſcans, after the conqueſt of Mexico, being ſome of the firſt his Majeſty ſent to New Spain, went to Cholula on purpoſe to make the ſtricteſt enquiry; the reſult of which was, that they found the affair to have happened exactly as I have related it. If this puniſhment had not taken place our lives would have been in the greateſt danger, and had we been deſtroyed, this country of New Spain would not have been ſo eaſily gained, or a ſecond expedition attempted; or if it had, it might have failed of ſucceſs, as the natives would have defended their coaſts." P. 125.

Honeſt, but ſimple Bernal Diaz, thou haſt ſtumbled on the truth!

As Cortes approaches the capital, the narrative becomes infinitely intereſting. We cannot refuſe our readers the plea-

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"* Above ſix thouſand Cholulans were put to death on this occaſion."

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ſure of witneſſing the firſt interviews of Cortes with Cacamatzin and Montezuma.

" Early in the morning, when we were on the point of marching, a centinel came to inform us, that a great number of Mexicans, richly dreſſed, were upon the road. Cortes therefore ordered us to return into our quarters, and at that inſtant four of the principal courtiers of Mexico arrived, and waiting on Cortes with great reſpect informed him, that Cacamatzin lord of Tezcuco, the nephew of the great Montezuma, was approaching, and requeſted that he would wait to receive him. Cacamatzin followed in the greateſt pomp, carried in a magnificent litter adorned with green plumes, and enriched with jewels, ſet in the branched pillars of ſolid gold. He was borne by eight lords, who aſſiſted him out of the litter, and ſwept the way by which he was to paſs. When he came into the preſence of Cortes he ſaid to him, " Malintzin, here am I and thoſe lords to attend you to your reſidence in our city, by order of the great Montezuma." Cortes embraced the prince, and preſented him with three jewels of that kind called margajitas, which are figured in different colours. We then ſet forward on the road to Mexico, which was crowded with multitudes of the natives, and arrived at the cauſeway of Iztapalapa, which leads to that capital. When we beheld the number of populous towns on the water and firm ground, and that broad cauſeway, running ſtraight and level to the city, we could compare it to nothing but the enchanted ſcenes we had read of in Amadis of Gaul, from the great towers and temples, and other edifices of lime and ſtone which ſeemed to riſe out of the water. To many of us it appeared doubtful whether we were aſleep or awake; nor is the manner in which I expreſs myſelf to be wondered at, for it muſt be conſidered, that never yet did man ſee, hear, or dream of any thing equal to the ſpectacle which appeared to our eyes on this day.

" When we approached Iztapalapa, we were received by ſeveral great lords of that country, relations of Montezuma, who conducted us to our lodgings there, in palaces magnificently built of ſtone, and the timber of which was cedar, with ſpacious courts, and apartments furniſhed with canopies of the fineſt cotton. After having contemplated theſe noble edifices we walked through the gardens, which were admirable to behold from the variety of beautiful and aromatic plants, and the numerous alleys filled with fruit trees, roſes, and various flowers. Here was alſo a lake of the cleareſt water, which communicated with the grand lake of Mexico by a channel cut for the purpoſe, and capable of admitting the largeſt canoes. The whole was ornamented with works of art, painted, and admirably plaiſtered and whitened, and it was rendered more delightful by numbers of beautiful birds. When I beheld the ſcenes that were around me, I thought within myſelf that this was the garden of the world! This place was, at the time of which I am ſpeaking, with one half of the houſes in the water, and the other half on dry land; but all is deſtroyed, and that which was a lake is now a tract of fields of Indian corn, and ſo entirely altered that the natives themſelves could hardly know it.

"On the next day we set out, accompanied as on the former one, and proceeded by the grand causeway, which is eight yards wide, and runs in a straight line to the city of Mexico. It was crowded with people, as were all the towers, temples, and causeways, in every part of the lake, attracted by curiosity to behold men, and animals, such as never had before been seen in these countries. We were occupied by very different thoughts; our number did not amount to four hundred and fifty, we had perfectly in our recollection the accounts we had received on our march, that we were to be put to death on our arrival in the city which we now saw before us, approachable only by causeways, whereon were several bridges, the breaking of one of which effectually cut off our retreat. And now let who can, tell me, where are men in this world to be found except ourselves, who would have hazarded such an attempt?

"When we arrived at a place where a small causeway turns off, which goes to the city of Cuyoacan, we were met by a great number of the lords of the court in their richest dresses, sent as they said before the great Montezuma, to bid us welcome. After waiting there some time, the nephew of Montezuma and other noblemen went back to meet their monarch, who approached, carried in a most magnificent litter, which was supported by his principal nobility. When we came near certain towers which are almost close to the city, Montezuma who was then there quitted his litter, and was borne in the arms of the princes of Tezcuco, Iztapalapa, Tacuba, and Cuyoacan, under a canopy of the richest materials, ornamented with green feathers, gold, and precious stones that hung in the manner of fringe; he was most richly dressed and adorned, and wore buskins of pure gold ornamented with jewels. The princes who supported him were dressed in rich habits, different from those in which they came to meet us, and others who preceded the monarch spread mantles on the ground, lest his feet should touch it. All who attended him, except the four princes, kept their eyes fixed upon the earth, not daring to look him in the face.

"When Cortes was told that the great Montezuma approached, he dismounted from his horse, and advanced towards him with much respect; Montezuma bid him welcome, and Cortes replied with a compliment, and it appeared to me, that he offered to yield the right hand to Montezuma, who declined it, and put Cortes on his right. Our general then produced a collar of those artificial jewels called margajitas, which are of various colours, set in gold, and threw it upon the neck of Montezuma; after which, he advanced to embrace him, but the lords who surrounded the monarch, taking him by the arm, prevented him, it appearing to them not sufficiently respectful. Cortes then said, that he rejoiced in having seen so great a monarch, and that he was highly honored by his coming out to meet him, as well as by the many other marks of his favor. To this Montezuma made a gracious reply, and gave orders to the princes of Tezcuco and Cuyoacan to attend us to our quarters. Attended by his nobility, he then returned to the city, all the people standing close to the walls, without daring to lift up their eyes, and thus we passed, without obstruction from the crowd. Who could count the multitude of men, women, and children, which thronged the streets, the canals, and terraces on the tops of the houses,

houſes, on that day! The whole of what I ſaw on this occaſion is ſo ſtrongly imprinted on my memory, that it appears to me as if it had happened only yeſterday: glory to our Lord Jeſus Chriſt, who gave us courage to venture upon ſuch dangers, and brought us ſafely through them! And praiſed be he, that he has ſuffered me to live, to write this my true hiſtory, although not ſo fully and ſatisfactorily as the ſubject deſerves." P. 130.

We recommend this whole chapter (the 8th) to particular notice; it is perhaps the moſt intereſting and amuſing that is to be found in hiſtory. The court of Montezuma is deſcribed at great length, as indeed it well deſerved to be; ſince it probably ſurpaſſed in ſtate and magnificence that of any contemporary potentate in Europe. The character of the Monarch is highly amiable; frank, generous, and unſuſpecting, he forms a perfect contraſt with the gloomy, perfidious, ſordid, and cold-blooded Cortes, who is a traitor upon argument, and a murderer upon calculation!

Dr. Robertſon relates the ſeizure of this Prince; but he attributes it, with the Spaniſh hiſtorians, or rather the gloſſers over of Spaniſh enormities, to the news of the defeat of Juan de Eſcalante. The Doctor had certainly read Diaz, and, to do him juſtice, makes good uſe of the old ſoldier on many occaſions; how is it then, that he did not conſult him on the preſent? Whoever has the ſlighteſt knowledge of the ruling paſſion of Cortes, muſt be convinced, that the true motives of the ſeizure of Montezuma are to be found in the following paſſage:

"Cortes perceiving how adverſe the king was to the converſion of his temple into a chriſtian church, applied to one of the principal officers of his palace, for materials to conſtruct a chapel and altar, within our quarters. His deſire being made known to Montezuma, it was inſtantly complied with, and timber and workmen being provided, in three days we had it completed. Here we ſaid maſs every day; we had however to lament the total want of wine for the holy ſacrament, it having been all uſed in the illneſs of Cortes, the reverend father, and others, during the wars in Tlaſcala. However we were conſtant in our devotions, as well on account of our duty, as in order to impreſs a proper idea of our holy religion, on the minds of Montezuma and the natives. Being employed in looking out for a proper place to fix the holy croſs, one of our carpenters obſerved an appearance on the wall, as if a door had been there, and lately cloſed up. When this was made known to Cortes, it was privately opened, and on entering the apartment, they found riches without end! The ſecret ſoon tranſpired, and we went, all of us, to view them. I was then a young man, and I thought that if all the treaſures of the earth had been brought into one place, they could not have amounted to ſo much. It was agreed to cloſe up the door again, and we determined to conceal the knowledge of it until the proper time ſhould offer.

"A coun-

" A council was now called, compoſed of Cortes as preſident, with four captains, and twelve ſoldiers whereof I was one, and having duly conſidered how evidently the Lord guided us, and what wiſe and valiant captains and brave ſoldiers we had, as alſo the fickle diſpoſition of the Indians, who though now kind to us, might change, there was no ſaying how ſoon, and that notwithſtanding the hoſpitality with which Monteʒuma treated us, he might at any moment fall into an oppoſite line of conduct, we reſolved to follow the opinion of Cortes, by adopting the moſt effectual meaſure, which was, to ſeize, and make that monarch our priſoner." P. 150.

Cortes's next exploit (in every reſpect worthy of him) was that of burning alive four Mexican nobles before the priſon of their unhappy ſovereign, who was put in irons during the execution. The Hiſtorian of America thinks this infernal barbarity " may have flowed from that artful policy which regulated every part of Cortes's behaviour towards the Mexicans." What abuſe of language! The policy of Cortes conſiſted in nothing more than the ſuperiority of his arms, and a determination to employ them in the deſtruction of an innocent people, who were in the tranquil poſſeſſion of the gold for which he thirſted. The " artful policy" of a foot-pad is preciſely the ſame, and is altogether as worthy of the hiſtorian's admiration.

The treaſures of the " concealed chamber" were not long ſuffered to remain in the poſſeſſion of the captive Monarch. They were carried to the Spaniſh quarters: the account of their diſtribution is not void of intereſt.

" Nothing farther was then thought neceſſary, than to deduct his Majeſty's fifth, and diſtribute the ſhares to the officers and ſoldiers; Cortes however propoſed that the diviſion ſhould be poſtponed until more treaſure was brought in, and more exact weights made, but the ſoldiers were clamorous for an immediate diviſion, for they perceived that ſince the various articles had been taken to pieces, above a third part was already gone; for Cortes, the captains, and others, were conveying it off and concealing it. At length it was determined to weigh it, and to poſtpone the diviſion until the enſuing day. It was accordingly ſo done, and excluſive of the ornaments and plates of gold, it was found to amount to upwards of ſix hundred thouſand crowns. I will now relate how it was divided, and how the moſt of it remained with Cortes and certain others.

" In the partition of the treaſure Cortes firſt laid aſide his Majeſty's fifth; ſecondly, for himſelf, another fifth; thirdly, a portion of the gold to reimburſe the expences in the Iſland of Cuba, and alſo for the naval expenditure incurred by Velaſquez, and the deſtruction of the ſhips; fourthly, for the expences of our agents in Spain; fifthly, for our ſoldiers in Villa Rica; ſixthly, for the loſs of killed horſes; ſeventhly, for the reverend father and the captains; eighthly, double ſhares for the cavalry, muſketeers, and croſsbow-men. Thus by the

time

time all these drafts were made, what remained for each soldier was hardly worth stooping for!! Many refused to take their shares, and the whole, nearly, remained with Cortes. We were obliged to be silent, for to whom could we appeal for justice? Some at length took their shares at a hundred crowns, and then cried out for more; these men's mouths Cortes stopped, giving privately a little to one, and a little to another, with promises in abundance on condition that they kept themselves quiet. That which was allotted to the soldiers in Villa Rica went no better, as shall be related in its place, and such was the result of the division of Montezuma's treasure." P. 172.

(To be concluded in our next.)

ART. XI. *Political Essays on Popular Subjects.* 8vo. 142 pp. 2s. 6d. Chapple. 1800.

SO numerous are the political writings which this eventful æra has produced, that some, even of distinguished merit and eminent utility, may escape public notice; more especially when no name is prefixed to the publication. On such occasions it is the duty of a literary journalist to interpose his influence, and by setting the merit of such works in its just light, to multiply the safeguards of public order, and strengthen the defences of the constitution. We have been led to these reflections, by the circumstance of our being ignorant who is the author of the work before us, and whether it has yet obtained any degree of celebrity. Yet we may safely pronounce it to proceed from a writer of extensive information and masterly judgment; and so excellent is the object of these Essays, so admirable is the chain of reasoning by which it is pursued, that they alone might supply an antidote to the delusive and dangerous principles which have so fatally subverted many other states, and so recently endangered our own.

In a well-written Introduction, the author states his motives to be

"similar to those which have already given birth to many important productions of the press, and which, while the rest of Europe crouches beneath the dominion of a ferocious conqueror, or is overwhelmed by the torrent of his delusive principles, have, in this happy corner of the globe, aroused the zeal, and animated the exertions of every friend to good government, social happiness, and true religion."

To

To ſhow that ſuch exertions are ſtill neceſſary, he obſerves, that

"a large portion of diſcontent, diſaffection, and falſe opinion, ſtill lurks in the hearts of an active party in this kingdom, and that it is far from improbable that a numerous body of thoſe who are warm in their oppoſition to the politics of France, are actuated rather by a diſguſt at the evils which have attended the French revolution, than a full perſuaſion of the inſeparable connection between thoſe evils and their preſent cauſe, or a thorough conviction of the folly, the falſity, or the nefarioufneſs of the principles on which that Revolution was effected."

In this obſervation we perfectly coincide; and we conſider every writer who endeavours to clear this miſt from the eyes of his countrymen, as a benefactor to his country. The Eſſays themſelves are four in number. In the firſt are ſome juſt obſervations on *firſt principles;* in which the author, though he treats viſionary theories with contempt, recommends "that uſeful part of metaphyſical inveſtigation, the ſtudy of the human mind, and the human character, which forms the baſis of all political knowledge." The ſcience of Politics, he obſerves, does not "lie open to the obſervation of every ſuperficial reaſoner, nor ſhould a ſet of diſaffected adventurers be placed on a level with its ableſt and moſt venerable proficients." Here a very handſome and merited compliment is paid to the memory of Mr. Burke; "whoſe powers of genius, whoſe depth of erudition, whoſe luxuriance of fancy, whoſe extent of knowledge, whoſe ardent and perſuaſive eloquence, whoſe rich and ſublime compoſitions, whoſe predictive ſagacity, and whoſe religious zeal, will live", ſays this writer, "in the remembrance of the wiſe and good, when all his failings and imperfections ſhall be buried in oblivion." But it is time to advert to the more important parts of this work; which are contained in the ſecond and third Eſſays. In the former, he examines moſt of the popular doctrines on the ſubject of Liberty; namely, "That the eſtabliſhment of liberty alone is the proper end and deſign of government."—"That the right of government depends, at all times, on the will of the governed."—"That it is the reſult of a compact betwen the rulers and the people, in which the latter ſtipulated for advantages as the price of independence, (with other correſponding principles)" and, in ſhort, "that no man is equitably governed, unleſs he be governed by his own conſent." The arguments by which theſe doctrines are oppoſed, are (in our opinion) ſo juſt in themſelves, and ſo well enforced by this writer, that we cannot give a better ſpecimen of the work than by inſerting a part of them in his own words:

"What

"What doctrine, in truth, can be more abſurd than that which makes the right of government depend entirely on the will or opinion of the people? The aſſertion is abſolutely incompatible with the ſubject of which it is predicated. Government means nothing, if it do not mean controul on the actions, and, conſequently, on the wills, of men; and, without pauſing in this place, to enquire how the will of the people is to be known, whether in a diviſion of ſentiment the opinion of the majority ought to be obeyed; whether the diſapproving minority would not, by this principle, be juſtly emancipated from all reſtraint; and, in ſhort, without putting more of thoſe numerous queſtions, whoſe anſwers muſt inevitably operate as a *reductio ad abſurdum*, it is evident, as a general truth, that government could not ſubſiſt for a week, for a day, for an hour, if it were rendered ſubſervient to the wills of thoſe whom it is inſtituted to direct. There could then be no ſettled conſtitution, no eſtabliſhed laws, no accumulation of wiſdom, no deductions of experience, no ſtability of adminiſtration, no ſecurity of property, nor any of thoſe various advantages which government ought to produce in human ſociety.

"On the ſuppoſition of a compact between the people and their rulers, it is neceſſary that the terms, on each ſide, ſhould be nicely balanced and defined, and that the independence, or ſavage powers, to be ſurrendered by the one, ſhould be accurately bartered for the advantages to be enſured by the other. Such an agreement is more connected with fiction than with reality: it is more ſuited to the poet than the hiſtorian. Where an actual compact, preſcribing the mode of government, and the limits of obedience, can be proved to exiſt from the acknowledged principles of a conſtitution, and the expreſs letter of its laws, it may, indeed, be conſidered as an admirable guardian of the freedom and happineſs of a people; but in an abſtract caſe, ſuch as is here ſuppoſed, and ſuch as is always aſſumed by metaphyſical writers, the compact is not quoted from the preamble, nor the ſection, of a ſtatute; it is not brought forward in an embodied form; it is left to be inferred only from the ſuggeſtions of theory; and the terms of ſuch an imaginary contract cannot poſſibly be underſtood and explained, without a reference to ſome common and predominant principle, of ſuch as the general good of the community. But where the laws are ſilent, opinions will vary reſpecting this general good; and every one deprived of that liberty which he has been taught to conſider as original in himſelf, will neceſſarily complain that, in his own caſe, the terms of the compact have not been fulfilled. If a difference of ſentiment then ariſe between the people and the government, which is to decide, or who is to be the umpire between them?

"Suppoſing, however, merely for argument's ſake, we admit the exiſtence of an implied compact in the infant ſtate of a political ſociety; ſuch a covenant would be good and binding only between the parties who contracted at the time, that is, between the individuals who firſt formed the aſſociation, and the governors who were appointed over it. But as theſe individuals are perpetually changing in number, and varying in perſon, the neceſſity for new compacts will be perpetually ariſing; for, according to another doctrine of the ſpeculative philoſophers, the progenitors could claim no right to impoſe an obligation on their ſucceſſors:

ceſſors: and, even on the hypotheſis that both parties continue the ſame, a diſagreement may ſpring up among the people: a part may be perſuaded that the original contract has been broken, while another part is ſatisfied that it is ſtill preſerved. On this ſuppoſition, ſhall the diſcontented portion be deprived of their liberties, merely becauſe the reſt of the people do not agree with them in ſentiment; or, ſhall a part of the contracting body have a power of annulling the compact which was entered into by the whole?" P. [illegible]

After proving that theſe tenets are not merely "abſurd in theory," but "falſe in fact," he alſo ſhows how pernicious they are in their conſequences. "While they lie dormant as theories, they inflate the mind with pride, and flatter the paſſions which require controul; they excite diſaffection to eſtabliſhed government, looſen the ties of allegiance, and degrade the virtues of loyalty and ſubmiſſion; and when attempted to be reduced to practice," they "break down the barriers of reſtraint," and "involve the world in bloodſhed, confuſion, and anarchy."

The writer, having thus ſhown that liberty is not to be conſidered as "the chief object of government," proceeds to point out the principle to which it ought to be ſubordinate, "and the extent to which it ſhould be incorporated into every political ſyſtem."

This principle he ſtates to be "the public good, or the general happineſs of the community;" and from many juſt obſervations which follow, on the nature and condition of man, he deduces theſe conſequences; that "reſtraint is the firſt and moſt eſſential quality of government," and that "the freedom which conduces to happineſs, regards reſtraint as her parent and friend," provided that "reſtraint be directed to its proper object, the public good."—"Freedom" therefore, he concludes,

"is one of the qualities of government, admitted as a mode of accompliſhing its ultimate object,—the general happineſs of the community; but it muſt ever be ſubordinate to the firſt principle of all government, exterior reſtraint; it muſt be founded on law as its only ſolid baſis, and muſt be conſiſtent with virtue, as the ſole means by which it can be truly reliſhed, and uſefully employed." P. 51.

Having given ſo full an account of the ſecond Eſſay as, we truſt, may impreſs our readers with a juſt idea of the book in general, we ſhall be more brief as to the two remaining branches of this work; although they will be found equally worthy of attention. The object of the third is to prove, that both ſpecies of democratic government (namely, the direct, when the whole nation are ſuppoſed to enact laws, and the indirect, when they are repreſented by delegates) "are founded on a falſe principle; that both are impracticable with a cloſe adherence to that principle on which they profeſs to be founded; and that, if either could

be carried into execution, it would be productive of the very evils which government is deſigned to prevent." The author's arguments as to both theſe forms of democracy are, we think, concluſive; but we eſpecially recommend his remarks on the repreſentative ſyſtem; ſince, to the beſt of our judgment, they completely overthrow the doctrine, which Paine and others have maintained, that repreſentation is a cure for all the evils of a popular government. The principle enforced in this part of the work is, "that almoſt all the evils attributed both to ſimple and repreſentative democracy, apply to it only as an original and independent power; whereas all its advantages, like thoſe of liberty, are to be aſcribed to its ſubordinate ſtation in the ſyſtem of government." This doctrine is admirably illuſtrated and applied, ſo as to demonſtrate the excellence of the Britiſh Conſtitution.

In the fourth and laſt Eſſay, the oppoſite tenets maintained by Whigs and Tories, at different periods of our hiſtory, are clearly and fairly ſtated, and the degree of danger reſulting from the extreme of either opinion pointed out. Among other errors, that which aſſerts "the ſovereignty of the people," is expoſed by reaſonings, which it would, in our apprehenſion, be difficult for the ableſt champion of that doctrine to anſwer. Little diſagreement, he thinks, can remain on this ſubject, "between thoſe virtuous characters who are equally attached to the component parts of our government." An animated exhortation to ſupport the king, religion, and conſtitution of the kingdom, concludes.

From the view we have taken of theſe Eſſays, we truſt they will appear to merit not only the attention of thoſe readers who ſeek to gratify taſte by the peruſal of ingenious and elegant compoſitions, but the diligent ſtudy of all who wiſh to acquire the ſoundeſt principles of government in general, or to maintain unimpaired in their minds a veneration for our happy eſtabliſhment; that eſtabliſhment, which has long been our pride, and has, on ſo many occaſions, proved our ſafeguard againſt the oppoſite evils of abſolute power, and ſtill more fatal anarchy.

Art. XII. *Sotheby's Tranſlation of the Georgics.*

(Concluded from vol. xv, p. 670.)

IN proceeding with a comparative criticiſm on Mr. Sotheby, and the tranſlators who have gone before him, the next paſſage which we ſhall ſelect, as the ſubject of compariſon,

ſhall

ſhall be the concluſion of the Firſt Book of the Georgics. As the paſſage is ſhort, we ſhall give the tranſlations of it fully.

DRYDEN.

" Ye *home-born* deities of *mortal* birth,
Thou father Romulus and *mother earth*,
Goddeſs *unmov'd*, whoſe guardian arms extend
O'er Tuſcan Tiber's courſe, and Roman towers defend;
With youthful Cæſar your joint powers engage,
Nor *hinder* him to ſave the ſinking age.
Oh! let the blood, already ſpilt, atone
For the paſt crimes of curſt Laomedon:
Heaven *wants thee there*, and long the Gods, we know,
Have *grudg'd* thee Cæſar to the world below;
Where fraud and rapine, right and wrong confound,
Where impious arms from every part reſound,
And monſtrous crimes in every ſhape are crown'd.
The peaceful peaſant to the wars is preſt,
The fields lie fallow in inglorious reſt;
The plain no paſture to the flock affords,
The crooked ſcythes are ſtraightened into ſwords;
And there Euphrates her ſoft offspring arms,
And here the Rhine rebellows with alarms.
The neigbouring cities range on ſeveral ſides,
Perfidious Mars long plighted leagues divides,
And o'er the waſted world in triumph rides.
So four fierce courſers ſtarting to the race,
Scour through the plain, and lengthen every pace;
Nor reins, nor curbs, nor threat'ning cries they fear,
But force along the trembling charioteer."

WARTON.

" Ye greater guardian Gods of Rome, our prayer,
And Romulus, and thou chaſte Veſta, hear;
Ye who preſerve with your propitious powers,
Etrurian Tiber, and the Roman towers;
At leaſt permit this youth to ſave the world,
(Our only refuge) in confuſion hurl'd.
Let ſtreams of blood, already ſpilt, atone
For perjuries of falſe Laomedon.
The Gods, oh Cæſar! envy and complain,
That men and earthly cares thy ſteps detain,
Where ſacred order, fraud, and force confound,
Where impious wars, and tumults rage around,
And ev'ry various vice and crime is crown'd.
Diſhonour'd lies the plough; the baniſh'd ſwains
Are hurried from th' uncultivated plains;
The ſickles into barb'rous ſwords are beat,
Euphrates here, there war the Germans threat.
The neigbouring cities break faith's mutual bands,
And ruthleſs Mars raves wild o'er all the lands;

As when four furious courſers whirl away
The trembling driver, nor his cries obey;
With headlong haſte, ſwift pouring o'er the plains,
The chariot bounds along, nor hears the reins."

DELILLE.

" O père des Romains fils du Dieu des batailles!
Protectrice du Tibre, appui de nos murailles,
Veſta! dieux paternels! ô dieux de mon pays!
Ah! *du moins que Ceſar raſſemble nos débris!*
Par ces revers ſanglant dont elle fût la proie
Rome a bien effacé les parjures de Troie.
Helas! le ciel jaloux du bonheur des Romains,
Ceſar te redemande aux profanes humains!
Que d'horreurs en effet ont ſouillé la nature,
Les villes ſont ſans lois, les terres ſans culture.
En des champs de carnage on change nos guérets,
Et Mars forge ſes dards des armes de Ceres.
Ici le Rhine ſe trouble, et la mugit l'Euphrate,
Partout la guerre tonne et la diſcorde éclate,
Des auguſtes traités le fer tranche les nœuds,
Et Bellone en grondant ſe déchaine en cent lieux.
Ainſi lorſqu'une fois elancés de la barriere,
D'impetueux courſiers volent dans la carrière.
Leur guide les rappelle et ſe roidit en vain,
Le char n'écoute plus ni la voix ni le frein."

SOTHEBY.

" Ye native Gods, ye tutelary powers,
Of Tuſcan Tiber, and the Roman towers,
Thou Veſta, and thou founder of our name,
Guide of our arms, and guardian of our fame.
Oh! let this youth a proſtrate world reſtore,
Save a wrecked age, and ſooth to peace once more.
Enough, enough of blood already ſpilt,
Sates vengeful Gods, for Troy's perfidious guilt.
Already envious heav'ns thee Cæſar claim,
And deem the earth ſubdued below thy fame;
Where right and wrong in mad confuſion hurl'd,
New crimes alarm, new battles thin the world,
None venerate the plough; waſte earth deplores
Her ſwains, to ſlaughter dragg'd on diſtant ſhores.
Far, far they fall from their uncultur'd lands,
And ſcythes transform'd to falchions arm their hands.
There mail'd Euphrates, there Germania bleeds,
Death neighb'ring towns to kindred ſlaughter leads,
Mars arms the globe. Thus ſteed provoking ſteed,
Burſts from the bars, and maddens in his ſpeed:
The guide bent back, each wearied ſinew ſtrains,
On flies th' infuriate car, and mocks the ſtarting reins.

This

This paſſage, for the ſake of greater diſtinctneſs of compariſon, may be divided into four parts: the invocation to the Gods of Rome; the praiſe of Auguſtus, which that invocation introduces; the picture of the ſtate of anarchy, which his government was to remedy; and the compariſon, by which the unbridled rage of that wretched ſtate is repreſented to the fancy. The invocation is not only inelegantly, but unfaithfully tranſlated by Dryden. The words which we have marked with italics in his firſt couplet, are wholly unjuſtified by the original. The "*Di patrii indigetes*," undoubtedly meant only the *native Gods of Rome*, the local and national deities who more peculiarly preſided over the fortunes of the city. No Roman could have had an idea that they were "*home-born*," ſtill leſs that they were "*of mortal birth.*" Dryden, in the haſte of his tranſlation, ſeems to have been led into this confuſion by the mention of Romulus. But Romulus and Veſta are invoked, in addition to theſe national deities (whoever they were) and Romulus was himſelf conſidered, not as "*of mortal birth*," but as the ſon of Mars. In the ſecond and third verſes, the language addreſſed to Veſta is extremely unhappy. The imagination is diverted from the Goddeſs Veſta, to the earth itſelf. In other parts of poetry, it may ſometimes be allowed to ſubſtitute the name of the deities who are ſuppoſed to preſide over certain objects, for the claſs of objects over which they preſide, as Mars for war, Bacchus for wine, &c. and the reverſe. But this never can be tolerated in invocation, becauſe prayer muſt ſuppoſe the *perſonal exiſtence* of thoſe beings who are addreſſed. The expreſſions which we have marked in the fifth couplet are ſo inelegant, not to ſay vulgar, that they muſt diſpleaſe and diſguſt even the mere Engliſh reader, whoſe taſte does not receive the additional diſpleaſure, which ariſes from a contraſt of the meanneſs of theſe lines with the majeſty of the original. But all the lines which follow are truly *Drydenic*. They are nervous and muſical, ſpirited and lofty. They have that air of immediately flowing from the inſpiration of genius, which diſtinguiſhes their great author, and which no other Engliſh poet in rhyme has been able to copy. The reader in this paſſage, as in many others of Dryden, riſes from the peruſal with mingled feelings of admiration and regret; he admires the powers which can produce ſuch excellence, and he deplores the haſte which could ſuffer ſo many errors to eſcape. For the memory and talents of Dr. Warton, we have great reſpect; but we can ſcarcely prevail on ourſelves to doubt, that our readers muſt think his tranſlation the worſt of thoſe which we have laid before them. The firſt and third couplets of his verſion, are made up of as

bad lines, as are perhaps to be found in the works of any verſifier of reputation; ſince Pope has taught correctneſs to verſifiers, and faſtidiouſneſs to the public. The ſubſequent lines are a cloſe and feeble imitation of Dryden, with the exception of one improvement. "*Diſhonoured lies the plough*" repreſents a ſtriking idea of the original which Dryden had omitted, probably more from indolence and hurry, than from want of taſte. But this phraſe, though not unhappy, is much inferior to the correſponding expreſſions of Mr. Sotheby. The firſt lines of the Abbé Delille's verſion ſeem to us to be as exact a repreſentation of the ſober majeſty and finiſhed elegance of the original, as it is poſſible to give. In the fourth line, indeed, ſome part of the ideas of Virgil are wanting; but the fifth couplet is perhaps one of the moſt fortunate ſpecimens of tranſlation which literature can boaſt. The ſequel is not always laboured with equal ſucceſs. The line which we have marked, is an example of a ſimple and intereſting circumſtance being weakened by the common places of mythology. The merits of Mr. Sotheby's verſion may be, in a great meaſure, eſtimated by a review of the faults of his predeceſſors, which he has judiciouſly and happily avoided. To compare him to Warton would be injuſtice; and we will preſume to ſay, that, without danger to his reputation, he may be compared with Dryden. In the invocation and panegyric he is ſuperior; and though, in the deſcription which follows, Dryden gave the reins to his natural genius for vigourous invective, yet the preſent verſion, without being weak, is more *Virgilian* than that of Dryden. There is one line of Mr. Sotheby, at which a reader of taſte will perhaps pauſe. It is the fourth in this paſſage. The idea is not in the original, and the expreſſion and cadence are better ſuited to the antithetic poignancy, and balanced meaſure of Pope, than to the general ſtyle of Virgil, or to the ſimple majeſty and pious fervour of a patriotic prayer. The words are antithetically placed, without any oppoſition in the ideas; and, on the whole, it muſt be owned to be a line which adds more to the ſound and pomp, than to the force or beauty of the paſſage. Yet this criticiſm implies, perhaps, the greateſt commendation that can be beſtowed on Mr. Sotheby. A paſſage, of which ſuch a line is the chief blemiſh, muſt approach very near indeed to perfection. Dryden calls the Georgics, in his admirable Dedication, "the beſt poem of the beſt poet." There is nothing which entitles it more to this diſtinction, than the conſummate art with which the poet has varied the ſtyle, which, though always perfectly elegant, and never deformed by thoſe rugged lines, which ſo much abound in his model Lucretius, is yet extremely various. The kind

of

of ornament is varied with every variation of the ſubject. The deſcriptions are enriched by all the artifices of poetical language. But the clearneſs of ſtatement is never obſcured by profane ornament. Even the ſimplicity is not uniform. In pathetic paſſages it is a ſoft ſimplicity. In precepts it is a ſevere ſimplicity, ſuitable to that character of gravity and authority, which becomes thoſe who inſtruct or command. Perhaps there may be ſome critics ſo faſtidious as to complain, that in Mr. Sotheby's verſion there is more uniformity and prodigality of adorned language, than the variety of Virgil admits. Whether this complaint be well or ill founded, the reader will judge from the following paſſages of the original, and the tranſlation. They are paſſages of mere ſtatement, in which Virgil ſeems ſtudiouſly to have employed great frugality of ornament, or rather to have abſtained from ornament altogether.

"Principio arboribus varia eſt natura creandis;
Namque aliæ, nullis hominum cogentibus, ipſæ
Sponte ſuâ veniunt, campoſque et flumina late
Curva tenent." Georg. lib. ii. v. 9—12.

"At firſt, by various ways, o'er hill and plain,
Spontaneous woods clothed Nature's wild domain:
Some riſe at will, and with *uncultur'd ſhade*
Fringe the wild ſtreams, and darken all the glade."
SOTHEBY.

"Nec verò terræ ferre omnes omnia poſſunt
Fluminibus Salices, craſſiſque paludibus alni
Naſcuntur, ſteriles ſaxoſis montibus orni;
Littora myrtetis lætiſſima; denique apertos
Bacchus amat colles, aquilonem et frigora taxi."
Georg. lib. ii. v. 109—113.

"Not every ſoil each varying race ſupplies,
Willows by ſtreams, in marſhes alders riſe;
Wild aſhes wave bleak promontories o'er,
Gay myrtles bloſſom on the ſea-beat ſhore;
Along the ſunny uplands vineyards glow,
And yews aſcend 'mid tempeſts wing'd with ſnow." SOTHEBY.

The lines which are marked in the tranſlation are indeed harmonious and poetical; but they are perhaps miſplaced. They have more of the luxuriancy of a deſcription of Thomſon than of the ſobriety even of a Virgilian deſcription; not to ſpeak of the ſevere ſimplicity of a Virgilian ſtatement. The happy effect of an occaſional abſtinence from ornament is very remarkable in the laſt of theſe two paſſages. It is immediately followed by one of the moſt ſplendid parts of Virgil

gil—the praiſes of Italy. The ſimplicity of the introductory verſes admirably ſerves as a ſhade, which gives additional luſtre to the brilliant colouring of the ſubſequent deſcription. The great advantages of relief and contraſt are ſacrificed by all uniformly adorned writers. Pope and Gray, who, though they be poets of very different rank, are both maſters of poetical ſtyle, have both rejected part of theſe advantages, in purſuit of that equal poliſh which diſtinguiſhes their writings. Thomſon and Darwin, writers of far more unequal merit, have entirely ſacrificed them to that uniform gaudineſs of ſtyle which they affect. We ſhall extract Mr. Sotheby's tranſlation of the noble verſes in which Virgil has celebrated the praiſes of his country, which almoſt immediately follow the laſt cited paſſage.

" Yet nor the Median groves nor rivers roll'd,
Ganges and Hermus, o'er their beds of gold;
Nor Ind, nor Bactra, nor the bliſsful land
Where incenſe ſpreads o'er rich Panchaia's ſand;
Nor all that fancy paints in fabled lays,
O native Italy! tranſcend thy praiſe.
Though here no bulls beneath th' enchanted yoke,
With fiery noſtril o'er the furrow ſmoke,
No hydra teeth embattled harveſt yield,
Spear and bright helmet briſtling o'er the field;
Yet golden corn each laughing valley fills,
The vintage reddens on a thouſand hills,
Luxuriant olives ſpread from ſhore to ſhore,
And flocks unnumber'd range the paſtures o'er.
Hence the proud war-horſe ruſhes on the foe,
Clitumnus hence, thy herds more white than ſnow,
And ſtately bull, that of gigantic ſize,
Supreme of victims, on the altar lies,
Bath'd in thy ſacred ſtream, oft led the train
When Rome, in pomp of triumph, deck'd the fane.
Here Spring perpetual leads the laughing hours,
And Winter wears a wreath of ſummer flowers;
Th' o'erloaded branch twice fills with fruits the year,
And twice the teeming flocks their offſpring rear.
Yet here no lion breeds, no tiger ſtrays,
No tempting aconite the touch betrays;
No monſtrous ſnake th' uncoiling volume trails,
Or gathers orb on orb his iron ſcales;
But many a peopled city tow'rs around,
And many a rocky cliff with caſtle crown'd,
And many an antique wall, whoſe hoary brow
O'erſhades the flood that guards its baſe below.

Bleſt in thy race, in battle unſubdu'd,
The Marſian youth, and Sabine's hardy brood,

By

By ſtrenuous toil the bold Ligurian ſteel'd,
And ſpear-arm'd Volſci that diſdain to yield;
Camilli, Marii, Decii, ſwell thy line,
And thunderbolts of war each Scipio thine.
Thee, Cæſar! chief, whoſe ſword the eaſt o'erpow'rs,
And the tam'd Indian drives from Roman tow'rs,
All hail, Saturnian earth! hail, lov'd of fame!
Land rich in fruits, and men of mighty name;
For thee I dare the ſacred founts explore,
For thee the rules of ancient art reſtore;
Themes once to glory rais'd, again reheärſe,
And pour thro' Roman towns th' Aſcræan verſe."

This paſſage alone would be ſufficient to juſtify the commendation which we have beſtowed on Mr. Sotheby, in which we have, deſignedly, rather underſtated our approbation, that there might be no ſuſpicion of our wiſh to exaggerate, and that our praiſe might appear to be, what it really is, both conſiderate and impartial. Whoever will compare the above extract with previous verſions, will, notwithſtanding the great ſpirit of ſome of Dryden's lines, be convinced of the general ſuperiority of the preſent tranſlation. In the beginning of the paſſage, none of the tranſlators have been content with the ſimplicity of Virgil's "*Laudibus Italiæ certent*"; they ſeem all to have been afraid of truſting Italy without an epithet: and perhaps they were right. Virgil was addreſſing Italians, whoſe feelings were ſufficiently excited by the mere name of their country. But his tranſlators were ſpeaking to other nations, who had no ſuch feelings connected with the ſound of Italy. They were therefore obliged to diſplay ſome of the circumſtances which made Italy not only dear to her own children, but delightful or intereſting to other nations. This they have done variouſly. Dryden has rendered it thus:

Can with ſweet Italy contend in fame.

Warton thus:

—— can vie
With the bleſt ſcenes of beauteous Italy.

The Abbé Delille:

A l'antique Auſonie ont ils rien qui s'égale.

And Mr. Sotheby:

O native Italy! tranſcend thy praiſe.

Dryden has expreſſed the affection of men for their country with which we naturally ſympathize; the Abbé Delille that reverence which we feel for antiquity; Mr. Sotheby has expreſſed the veneration of a patriot for his country, by the ſolemn

ſolemn form of invocation, and his love by that epithet, "native", which with ſo ſweet, though irreſiſtible an influence, attracts virtuous hearts to the ſcene of their firſt pleaſures. Dr. Warton has not availed himſelf of any of theſe intereſting circumſtances. He has employed only vague epithets of common-place deſcription, which call up no picture, and inſpire no feeling. It is, however, but juſtice to him to obſerve, that he has rendered one phraſe of this paſſage more exactly, and more elegantly (as it ſeems to us) than any other tranſlator. The phraſe is "*alienis menſibus æſtas.*" It is abſolutely miſtranſlated by Dryden:

And ſummer ſuns recede by ſlow degrees.

The tranſlation of Mr. Sotheby, though very elegant, is perhaps more florid than the manner of Virgil will admit:

And winter wears a wreath of ſummer flowers.

Dr. Warton ſeems to have gone as near an exact tranſlation as can be hoped for in poetry.

Here ſummer ſhines in ſeaſons not her own.

Though hypercritical acuteneſs might ſuggeſt, that as "ſummer" is a "ſeaſon", there is ſome diſcordancy in the language "*ſeaſons* not her own", which Virgil has eſcaped. The verſion of the ſame phraſe, by the Abbé Delille, is excellent.

Même au ſein des hivers l'eté luit dans nos plaines;

though it wants the poetical circumlocution which gives dignity to the language of Virgil. To expect in any other writer turns of expreſſion ſo elegant, and yet ſo perfectly void of oſtentation; ſo digniſied, and yet ſo natural, as thoſe of Virgil, would imply both ſeverity to other poets, and irreverence for his unrivalled art.

Our limits will not permit us to give any more ſpecimens, and we have produced enough to excite the curioſity of every lover of polite letters; if indeed all ſuch perſons be not already in poſſeſſion of this elegant work. The peculiar beauty of the following verſes tempt us to inſert them.

"Yes, lovely Spring! when roſe the world to birth,
Thy genial radiance beam'd upon the earth,
Beneath thy balmy air Creation grew,
And no bleak gale on infant Nature blew.
When herds firſt drank the light, from Earth's rude bed,
When firſt man's iron race uprear'd its head,
When firſt to beaſts the wilds and woods were given,
And ſtars unnumber'd paved th' expanſe of heav'n,
Then as thro' all the vital ſpirit came,
And the globe teem'd throughout its mighty frame,

Each

Each tender being, ſtruggling into life,
Had droop'd beneath the elemental ſtrife,
But thy mild ſeaſon, each extreme between,
Soft nurſe of Nature! gave the golden mean."

In the panegyric on rural life, which is towards the end of the ſecond book, there are ſeveral verſes finiſhed with ſuch maſterly ſkill, ſo wonderfully excellent, or, to ſum up all praiſe in one word, ſo perfectly Virgilian, that they are ſevere teſts indeed of a tranſlator's art.

—— Quibus ipſa procul diſcordibus armis,
Fundit humo *facilem* victum *juſtiſſima* tellus.
Georg. Lib. ii. v. 459—460.

DRYDEN.

—— free from buſineſs and debate,
Receives his *eaſy* food from Nature's hand,
And *juſt* returns of cultivated land.

Here the meaning is accurately rendered, but the elegance is untranſlated; and it is perhaps untranſlatable.

WARTON.

From wars and diſcord far, and public ſtrife,
Earth with ſalubrious fruits ſupports their life.

Here the ideas and the elegance are alike loſt. The two beautiful and ſignificant epithets, "*facilem*" and "*juſtiſſima*", are both unattempted.

DELILLE.

Fidèle a ſes béſoins a ſes travaux *docile*,
La Terre lui fournit un aliment *facile*.

The words which we have marked in theſe verſes will ſhow, that the ideas of Virgil are ſkilfully clothed in another language; but the antithetical arrangement of the firſt line is not Virgilian.

SOTHEBY.

For thee *juſt* earth, from her prolific beds,
Far from wild war *ſpontaneous* nurture ſheds.

We will venture to anticipate the deciſion of readers of taſte, by adjudging to Mr. Sotheby the palm in the tranſlation of theſe verſes. Theſe ſpecimens, though too few for our gratification, ſeem more than ſufficient to juſtify our praiſe. Upon the whole, Warton's tranſlation is inferior to Dryden in every thing but fidelity; and the preſent verſion, ſtill more exact than that of Warton, may indeed ſometimes yield to that of Dryden, in thoſe parts which demand peculiar animation and vigour, but far ſurpaſſes it wherever tenderneſs, or elegance,

or

or majeſty is the prevailing character of the original. The only general cenſure to which it is juſtly liable is perhaps ſomewhat too great a profuſion of ornament, where ſevere taſte might have required more didactic ſimplicity; and if this objection were harſhly urged, it might probably with great truth be anſwered, that the extreme delicacy of Virgil's elegance might have been unnoticed by modern readers, as they would be repelled by the occaſional ruſticity and groſſneſs of Homer; and that Mr. Sotheby is juſtified for having, in ſome degree, modernized Virgil, on the ſame principles which excuſe Pope for having, in a much greater degree, modernized Homer.

Mr. Sotheby, in his Advertiſement, calls Dr. Warton "the firſt critic of this age". Has this elegant poet forgotten the name of Dr. Johnſon? We know that there are ſtrange literaty hereſies on this ſubject, prevalent among the friends of the two Wartons. We have the higheſt reſpect for the memory of theſe ingenious and accompliſhed men, and we therefore admoniſh their admirers not to provoke compariſons, which cannot be advantageous to their fame, whether rank in criticiſm is to be eſtimated by juſtneſs of deciſion, or by vigour of talent.

ART. XIII. *A Maximum; or, the Riſe and Progreſs of Famine. Addreſſed to the Britiſh People. By the Author of a Reſidence in France, during the Years* 1792, 1793, 1794, 1795, *&c. &c.* 8vo. 62 pp. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1801.

THE conſequence of this tract muſt by no means be eſtimated from its ſize. It contains a ſtatement of facts, and of facts bearing ſtrongly, in the way of example, upon the preſent circumſtances of this country. Under the preſſure occaſioned by the exorbitant price of all neceſſaries, ſome ſpeculators have been raſh enough to turn their eyes towards the famous French expedient of *a Maximum*, as a mode of extrication for us. Under theſe circumſtances, to prevent as effectually as poſſible all hankering after a noſtrum ſo pernicious, by ſhowing its actual operation when tried, a writer here ſteps forward, well-qualified, both by knowledge and abilities, to ſtate the truth with effect.

When the celebrated *Letters during a Reſidence in France* were publiſhed in 1797, beſides commending the truth and ſpirit

ſpirit of this picture they contained, we ſtated our belief * of what we now know to be the fact, that they were the genuine production of a lady, who had been ſituated as they deſcribe, and the reſult of actual knowledge and obſervation. The preſent pamphlet comes undoubtedly from the pen of the ſame lady, and may be conſidered, in ſome meaſure, as a ſupplement to thoſe Letters. It relates the frightful and miſerable conſequences of the *maximum*, as they were actually experienced when that law was eſtabliſhed in France. One or two ſpecimens will effectually ſhow the ſpirit and force of this ſeaſonable tract.

"The French farmers argued much in the ſpirit of Shylock, whenever I converſed with them on the cauſe of their confinement; they perſiſted they had a right to ſell their corn under the protection of the ſame laws, which had encouraged them to ſow and reap it; and that they would endure every hardſhip, rather than any advantage ſhould be derived from the injuſtice practiſed upon them. They urged, moreover, that it was impoſſible for them to ſell their grain at an arbitrary valuation, while they were themſelves obliged to pay for their cattle, implements of huſbandry, clothes, and every article (not raiſed on their own farms), according to the will of the proprietors.—But it was in vain they reaſoned; the prejudice againſt them was univerſal.—I was one day giving a meſſage at the priſon door, when I obſerved a member of the Convention, who had juſt entered to take a ſurvey of his flock, talking to an old decent looking priſoner, with a petition in his hand, and apparently very ill, "*Va t'en, Va t'en*" (Get along, get along with you), ſaid the polite legiſlator of the moſt poliſhed nation in the world; and then turning to me, *Citoyenne*, added he, "that fellow is a farmer, and when I meet with a farmer, *je le traite comme un chien*, I treat him like a dog." "Citizen repreſentative," returned I, "I wiſh the farmers may not repay this, by treating us worſe than dogs;—for dogs are fed, and, I fear, if we go on this way, we ſhall be ſtarved."—"Pooh, it would be as well for the country, if all the farmers in it were ſent to peep out of the † national caſement."

"Not caring much to argue with one, who, if he had choſen it, might, by way of frolic, have ordered me on the ſame errand, I was ſilent, though I now began to ſuſpect this notion of treating farmers like dogs, would end in no good; and many beſides myſelf, converted by want, were of the ſame opinion.—At firſt, the gentry, the merchants, the ſhopkeeper, in ſhort, thoſe of no occupation and thoſe of all occupations, had joined in calling for meaſures of ſeverity againſt the farmers; one would have imagined, it was a crime to plough, ſow, and cultivate the earth; or that ſome method had been diſcovered of producing corn without labour; and, I may venture to ſay, this madneſs was the only inſtance of unanimity between the government and the people.—The reſult proved, that even a whole nation, when acting

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* See Brit. Crit. vol. ix, pp. 176, 274, 369.

† Guillotine."

under

under the influence of its neceſſities, and paſſions more than its reaſon, may be wrong; and that the voice of the people is not always the voice of God, nor that of common ſenſe.

"A few weeks ſufficiently manifeſted the efficacy of this noſtrum, of which political quacks had ſo much boaſted; whatever is done by force, is done badly; and whatever wars with the intereſts of a whole body of men, muſt be liable to a thouſand latent modes of counteraction, which no wiſdom can foreſee, nor deſpotiſm reach.

"While the military ſcoured one diſtrict, ſurreptitious bargains were made in another; and, as I have before obſerved, thoſe who could afford it, were eager, not only to purchaſe at any rate, but willing alſo to pay the farmer for his riſk in evading the law. The people who were precluded from this private commerce, and who perceived, that bread, as well as moſt other articles, was becoming daily more unattainable, now fancied nothing would relieve them effectually, except a general Maximum—This opened the eyes of thoſe who had been ſo zealous in promoting the perſecution of the farmers; but it was too late, the lower claſſes had acquired a diſaſtrous taſte for innovation; and, with the fickle reſtleſſneſs of diſeaſe, which is ever flying to new remedies, they were earneſt in demanding an extenſion of the Maximum. At the end of October 1793, then this memorable decree was promulgated—A decree, which France will long execrate, which coſt her the lives of ſo many of her moſt uſeful citizens, and which her manufactures have not yet recovered.—Being in priſon, I only know the immediate effect from the report of others; from not being able to procure neceſſaries for money, from the adulteration of every article which was ſuſceptible of it, and from the number of poor ſhop-keepers hourly brought in, under the charge of violating the new law." P. 11.

A few more lines of this ſingular picture, will render a ſtill fuller comment on the dangerous text of a maximum.

"We remained pretty much in this ſtate, till the Spring of 1794—All open trade and commerce, were at an end—Sometimes we eat, ſometimes we faſted—One day no bread, another no meat, and every day riſking our lives, merely to obtain food to preſerve them: indeed, our exiſtence a good deal reſembled that of a highwayman; we ran great hazards, got very ſcanty ſupplies, and were conſtantly in fear.—The government, which ſo long ridiculed all religions, and had ſtrictly prohibited the Roman Catholics from practiſing the forms of theirs, now publiſhed a pompous harangue, to perſuade people to a patriotic faſt during Lent, and to inform them, that nature herſelf ſeemed to indicate to man, that in this ſeaſon of univerſal renovation, he ought to eat ſparingly.

"I know not what effect this eloquence might have produced of itſelf; but the Maximum operated ſo powerfully, that very few had the choice of diſregarding it; even the moſt anti-patriotic appetites were ſometimes obliged to ſubmit to theſe civic faſtings.—Corn, however, being an article too bulky for general concealment, was ſtill to be obtained, though precariouſly, and in ſmall quantities; or, rather, the rich managed to purchaſe all the beſt, at an enormous price, clandeſtinely;

ſinely; and the refuſe, what had been damaged by being ſecreted in damp places, and was not fit for uſe, was ſold at the Maximum to the poor. In the meanwhile, famine ſeemed rapidly approaching; parks, gardens, every ſlip of ground was ordered to be planted with potatoes; valuable trees and ſhrubs were torn up; and ſuch was the madneſs, or apprehenſion of the moment, that it was propoſed in the South of France to cut down the mulberry and olive trees, and cultivate nothing but corn and potatoes. Struck* (as the French emphatically expreſſed it) by the Maximum, all the manufactures at Lyons, Sedan, Rouen, Amiens, Abbeville, &c. &c, were ſhut up; and, of courſe, thouſands of induſtrious workmen were ſtarving. It muſt be obſerved alſo, that every ſort of labour was neceſſarily included in the maximum law†; ſo that various trades, which before were not ſubject to any regulation, were now obliged to work at fixed prices; thus, the act was entirely to the diſadvantage of the poor; for a merchant, or ſhopkeeper, could make private bargains, but the artizan and labourer could not; eſpecially as the total ſtagnation of commerce and trade had thrown ſo many out of employ, that hands were as plenty as proviſions were ſcarce. In this reſpect, the law might well be compared to a cobweb, which confines ſmall flies, and lets great ones eſcape. Almoſt every ſort of importation ceaſed; no foreign merchant would ſend goods to be ſold at the Maximum, nor would any native venture to ſpeculate, or riſk his capital, under ſuch circumſtances. Yet, as there were ſome articles, which could not be diſpenſed with, government itſelf undertook to procure them, and, for more than a year, the whole commerce of France was carried on by its agents. Ten thouſand‡ of theſe were employed, ſome at home, others abroad, and many of them who were entruſted with vaſt ſums of money, to purchaſe corn, diſappeared, and left the republicans to provide for themſelves. As the ſummer of 1794 advanced, the public diſtreſſes augmented, inſomuch that it was judged expedient to ſacrifice the fleet, in order to ſave the grain in the tranſports, and we owe the opportunity furniſhed us, on the glorious firſt of June, to the Maximum—the French would *not* have hazarded an engagement, but to avert a famine. Yet, notwithſtanding the ſupply obtained at the expenſe of ſo great a loſs of men and ſhips, the ſcarcity continued; and farmers, ſhopkeepers, and manufacturers were impriſoned, guillotined, drowned, and ſhot, without pity or remorſe§." P. 20.

" * Frappé par le Maximum.

" † There is every reaſon to believe the French government did not at firſt intend to fix the Maximum for any article, except corn: but they ſoon found that, having once begun, it was impoſſible to ſtop. The law filled two large octavo volumes, and is extremely curious.

" ‡ This number has been ſtated officially.

" § See " the Report on Robeſpierre's Papers," *Moniteurs*—Hiſtory of the French Revolution—Trial of Carrier, and many other publications. Carrier, who was a member of the Convention, uſed to menace the people of Nantes, that he would play at bowls with their heads. Nantes is a large commercial place, and thirty thouſand of its inhabitants were deſtroyed in the various ways above cited."

Into a ſhort Appendix, the author has judiciouſly thrown the opinions of the French themſelves, after their proof of this dreadful experiment. One of the beſt expreſſed of theſe we ſhall cite,

"Throughout the republic, the progreſſive riſe in the price of neceſſaries created univerſal uneaſineſs, and a conſequent anxiety to diſcover the ſources of the evil. In this ſtate of things, a deſcription of men, equally devoid of principle and of experience, ſtruck with the effects, but without capacity to aſcertain the cauſes of what they ſaw, and miſled by a perfidious cabal intent on the ruin of our liberty, forcibly wreſted from the National Convention that fatal decree which went to fix the price of neceſſaries. This law, as fooliſh as it was wicked, and injurious alike to all without exception, rent aſunder the bonds of ſociety, deſtroyed the main-ſprings of agriculture, of commerce, induſtry, and the arts; and, as had been too well foreſeen, manufactures and works of all kinds conſequently ran to decay. No efforts continued to be made to replace the daily conſumption, and the merchant found himſelf ſtraitened in the means of uſeful ſpeculation, and every door ſhut againſt him. The deficiency of reproduction, the conſtrained inactivity of commerce, the outrages to which farmers were every where expoſed, the yoke of a law more properly murderous than penal—all tended to diminiſh and render precarious the public ſupplies, &c. &c.—You doubtleſs will not heſitate to repeal the Maximum, a law on which ſentence of condemnation has long been paſſed, in the opinion of thoſe even to whom it was held out as a taliſman to operate their complete proſperity." P. 59.

Mrs. —— very candidly confeſſes, that at firſt ſhe had participated in the common opinion, that a maximum would put an end to impoſitions, and rejoiced accordingly at the eſtabliſhment of the law. Bitter experience undeceived her, and ſhe now publiſhes the reſult of that experience for the benefit of her own country. Such a purpoſe ſo executed, demanded of us a ſpeedy and conſpicuous notice, and we have therefore taken the earlieſt opportunity to inſert this brief account. Some anecdotes, addreſſed to the feelings, are alſo inſerted, and well related in this pamphlet; in which the talents that gave intereſt to *the Reſidence* are ſtill manifeſt.

ART. XIV. *The Law of Executors and Adminiſtrators. By Samuel Toler, Eſq. of Lincoln's-Inn, Barriſter at Law.* 8vo. 144 pp. 8s. Butterworth. 1800.

THE title of this book ſeems rather exceptionable. When the ſubject matter of a treatiſe is repreſented by an abſtract term, writers of authority have frequently prefixed the word *Law*, as part of the name of their work, to ſignify that it

it comprehends every thing which is to be found in our ſyſtem of juriſprudence upon the ſubject. Thus there is "The Law of Parliaments", "The Law of Evidence", "The Law of Executions", &c. but we recollect no inſtance where it has been applicable as is done here; not to the legal doctrine itſelf, but to the perſons who are partly intereſted to know what that doctrine is. We ſay partly, becauſe, in ſtrictneſs of ſpeech, the law which is unfolded by Mr. Toler, is as much the law of thoſe who make wills, or of thoſe who derive title under them, as it is of the executor by whom the will is carried into effect. This mode of expreſſion is therefore not leſs inaccurate than it is unuſual. The title of the valuable work, written by Mr. Juſtice Dodderidge, upon the ſame ſubject, namely, "The Office and Duty of Executors", is exempt from a ſimilar imputation. But when we quarrel with the ſign which this author has hung out before his work, it is principally becauſe it holds forth but an adequate promiſe of the real inſtruction and entertainment which the reader will receive, when he enters more deeply into it. Mr. Toler has treated this very important and extenſive branch of the law in a manner uſeful to the profeſſion, and creditable to himſelf. "The Office and Duty of Executors", publiſhed under the name of Wentworth, but generally attributed to Judge Dodderidge, is one of the beſt treatiſes that we have upon a law ſubject. But as it was written at a period ſo diſtant as the time of James I.* a new work has become neceſſary, ſince, as Mr. T. obſerves, that treatiſe is of neceſſity defective in regard to later adjudications, which, eſpecially in equity, are very numerous and important. As that work is looked up to, and quoted as authority, in our courts of juſtice, we cannot help wiſhing that not only its ſubſtance, but its text, had been preſerved entire in the preſent publication. At the ſame time, it is but juſtice to Mr. T. to obſerve, that, to obtain this advantage, he muſt have ſacrificed his preſent more methodical and perſpicuous arrangement. He has divided his ſubject into three books. The firſt of theſe treats of the appointment of executors and adminiſtrators; the ſecond, of their rights and intereſts in and over the effects of the deceaſed; and the third,

* As it is our intereſt to repreſs the itch of ſcribbling in perſons unqualified to inſtruct or amuſe, ſelfiſhneſs almoſt tempts us to keep back an anecdote which may tend to encourage it, by ſhowing that ſome good may unexpectedly ſpring from ſuch publications. This treatiſe, and perhaps the no leſs celebrated production of "The Touchſtone of Common Aſſurances", are ſtated by the author, in his Preface, to have owed their origin to King James's *Preface to his book againſt Tobacco.*

of

of their powers and duties in collecting and diſtributing the aſſets, as theſe effects are technically called. Theſe main parts of his diviſion, and alſo the ſubordinate heads into which they are diſtributed, have been kept as diſtinct as the nature of a law ſubject will fairly admit; where it is neceſſary, not only to lay down the general rule, but to point out the caſes to which it is inapplicable, and the grounds upon which its various nice and ſubtle diſtinctions depend. Mr. T. has examined the ſeveral ſubjects of his work, in many places at leaſt, with a minuteneſs ſufficient to ſatisfy enquiry; and he has, in moſt points (we cannot ſay in all) unravelled them with a ſober patience, which avoids prolixity, and prevents confuſion. His language is definite and ſimple, and, ſo far as we have traced him, ſtudiouſly ſelected from thoſe books upon which he relies as authority for the doctrine he lays down. We cannot help wiſhing, however, that he had referred his reader leſs frequently to abridgments and compilations, inſtead of the more legitimate authority of decided caſes. However uſeful Conyer's Digeſt, and the Abridgments of Bacon and Viner, and Burn's Eccleſiaſtical Law may be, the caſes which they abſtract ought to be cited and conſulted, in preference to their abbreviated accounts. The author is, we are aſſured, well acquainted with the maxim cited by Lord Coke, when ſpeaking of one of the moſt valuable Abridgments in our law—Melius eſt petere fontes quam ſectari rivulos.

A further general objection which ſtruck us in going through this work, is of greater conſequence to the ſtudent than it is to the lawyer. The author, in entering upon the ſeveral heads of his ſubject, has given his readers no preliminary ſcheme of his method; no abſtract of the parts into which his ſubject matter muſt be divided. This excellent mode, which keeps the reader's attention alive during the progreſs of diſcuſſion to the extent and limitation of every rule, is, as far as we recollect, uniformly obſerved by Lord Chief Baron Gilbert in all his treatiſes, and in moſt inſtances by Lord Hale. It would have coſt Mr. T. little trouble to do this, ſince his book is well-arranged; and it would have ſaved ſo much to his leſs-experienced readers, that we truſt he will attend to it in a future edition. Thus, in treating of the appointment of executors and adminiſtrators, it would have rendered his work more conſpicuous if he had ſpecified, at the commencement, how many ſorts of executors and adminiſtrators there are, and how they become ſo. The conſideration of executors, *de ſon tort*, which is treated of in chap. i, ſect. 2, ought to have been poſtponed until after chap. iii, which treats of adminiſtrators.

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We further think that he ſhould have pointed out the diſtinction between legal and equitable aſſets, and where the real eſtate is made a ſubſidiary fund, &c.; whereas he firſt treats of the payment of debts, and diſcharge of legacies, inſtead of deferring it to the latter end of his work. It would have added much to the clearneſs of his expoſition, and rendered the diſtinctions more eaſy of remembrance, if he had diſcuſſed theſe points under the ſame head, and thus brought them into a more direct and immediate contraſt with each other than is now done. Indeed the leaſt full and ſatisfactory part of the book, is that which treats of legacies and the marſhalling of aſſets. Not only many of the nicer diſtinctions, but ſome of the leading principles of the law upon theſe ſubjects, are wholly omitted. Perhaps the author ſhould have recollected, that he ought to have ſtepped forward with all his power and information on that part of his ſubject, where Judge Dodderidge's work was, from the diſtant period in which he lived, the moſt defective. We have been thus particular in our reflections, becauſe we are ſatisfied that the gentleman who has produced ſo good a book, is capable of making it more perfect. We wiſh again to repeat, that even theſe imperfections cannot prevent us from mentioning it to the public as a valuable work, on a ſubject upon which a good book was much wanting.

A few inaccuracies of expreſſion occurred to us in peruſing the book, which we have pointed out for the author's conſideration in his next edition.

P. 80, he ſays, "if the deceaſed executor hath taken out probate, or the deceaſed's next of kin adminiſtration [*and afterwards die*] then another ſpecies of adminiſtration, which hath not hitherto been mentioned becomes neceſſary, namely, an adminiſtration de bonis non, &c." Here the ſenſe evidently requires the inſertion of ſome ſuch words as thoſe we have introduced between brackets.

So alſo, p. 98. "Or if the adminiſtrator, before the repeal, obtain a judgment for a debt due to the inteſtate, he is not entitled to take out execution, but the defendant may avoid the judgment by an audita querela." Both the authorities in the margin, and the context require the inſertion of the words, "*after the repeal has been obtained.*"

Further, p. 248. "The defendant, within that period, paid into the childrens' own hands their ſeveral legacies; the eldeſt of whom was then ſixteen years, the ſecond fourteen, and the youngeſt only nine. *On her coming* of age, they filed their bill againſt the executors to be paid their reſpective legacies," &c. The relative "her," has no proper antecedent;

and though we may conjecture that it refers to the youngeſt child, there is nothing in the ſtatement from whence we can properly collect it. Indeed, upon looking into the original report in Atkins, the period at which the bill was filed is not expreſsly mentioned. Theſe, however, are trivial errors, incident to every firſt edition of a work, and eaſily corrected by the reader himſelf.

ART. XV. *A Defence of Scripture Doctrines, as underſtood by the Church of England; in Reply to a Pamphlet, entitled "Scripture the only Guide to Religious Truth"; or, "A Narrative of the Proceedings of a Society of Baptiſts in York, in relinquiſhing the popular Syſtems of Religion, &c*." In a Series of Letters to Mr. D. Eaton. By the Rev. John Graham, Rector of St. Mary, Biſhophill Sen. and of St. Saviour, York; and Chaplain to the Right Hon. Earl Bathurſt.* 8vo. 118 pp. 2s. 6d. Teſſeyman, &c. York. 1800.

THIS tract is prefaced by an addreſs "to the Public", ſtating ſuccinctly and ſatisfactorily the principal reaſons for the publication of it. Letter I. premiſes ſome things, before entering upon the propoſed deſign; 1ſt. contending that, as no length of time can ſanctify error, nor can any arguments from numbers be concluſive; ſo truth is no leſs venerable becauſe it has ſtood the teſt of ſeventeen centuries, nor is the majority always in the wrong. 2dly. The *rule* is adjuſted, by which we are to interpret the Holy Scriptures. Here, the nature of the caſes in which the literal and the figurative ſenſe of Scripture are to be ſeverally taken, is well explained; and ſome good remarks occur concerning the uſe of metaphors. 3dly. The queſtion concerning *the inability of man* is ſet in a proper point of view. Laſtly, the peculiar views of the Methodiſts, with their "extatic impulſes, enthuſiaſtic frames," &c. are diſclaimed; and the queſtions principally to be conſidered are declared to be,

"What is the revelation which Jehovah has given concerning himſelf? What is the real character and condition of man? How is he to obtain the favour of God? How to obtain that holineſs, without which no man can ſee the Lord?" P. 11.

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* This Narrative has not reached us. *Rev.*

Letter

Letter II. begins by expoſing the prejudice and diſingenuouſneſs (we might add the *impudence*, for we do not account it ignorance) of thoſe writers, who charge Trinitarians with believing a *plurality* of Gods. (P. 12.)

It is a ſtriking feature, we think, in the controverſies of the preſent times, and not leaſt in the theological, that opponents are continually repreſented as holding opinions, and ſpeaking a language, which they expreſsly diſavow. Thus, in the inſtance before us, do Unitarians deal with Trinitarians; and thus do *rational* Chriſtians (as they ſtyle themſelves) treat more humble believers, repreſenting them as diſcarding reaſon in judging of revelation, when in fact they ſtrenuouſly exerciſe reaſon in judging whether the revelation be divine, and what is the true ſenſe of the things revealed? And, having ſatisfied themſelves on theſe points, they ſubject reaſon to faith, believing what they find God has declared, *becauſe* he has declared it. The Letter then proceeds to ſettle the queſtion,

"Whether, if there ſhould be any thing contained in the Scriptures, that favors the idea of an union of the Divine Nature with the human in Jeſus Chriſt, and of a Trinity of Perſons in one God,—ſuch doctrines are inadmiſſible of themſelves, as being contrary to reaſon and common ſenſe." P. 13.

Here the uſual diſtinction is taken, betwixt things *above* and things *contrary to* reaſon.

"If you aſk us, how we can conceive of three intelligent agents ſubſiſting in one undivided eſſence? we anſwer, that we have no diſtinct idea upon the ſubject; nor does this at all affect the queſtion. 'It is in vain for us to attempt to form adequate ideas of God, either in his attributes, or mode of exiſtence. We can know nothing concerning him, but what he is pleaſed to reveal to us; and, therefore, to revelation we muſt have recourſe, and let that determine this controverted point. If revelation clearly affirm the doctrines of the Divinity of Chriſt, and a Trinity of Perſons in the Godhead, any diffidence we may be diſpoſed to feel in receiving them, on account of our inability of fully comprehending them, ſhould vaniſh as the vapour before the ſun." P. 16.

The author examines, 2dly, whether the doctrines of an union of the divine and human natures in Jeſus Chriſt, and of a Trinity of Perſons in one God, are, or are not, clearly revealed in Holy Scripture? That they are ſo is ſhown by theſe arguments, that "the names and titles of the true God are applied to Chriſt"; that "the incommunicable attributes of Jehovah are directly aſcribed to him"; and, that "he who ſuſtains the offices which Chriſt ſuſtains muſt be divine."

"The reſult of the whole is this: declarations and exhibitions are given in Scripture of Jeſus Chriſt, ſome of which make him human,

ſome divine, ſome God and Man in one Chriſt. Your ſyſtem argues (with as much propriety as I ſhould infer that man has no ſoul after reading a treatiſe upon anatomy) Chriſt is man, therefore he is not God; yet you cannot ſhew us, that ſuch a conſequence is neceſſary in the nature of things, and that therefore he cannot poſſibly be God as well as man. We acknowledge him as he is revealed, the incarnate God; the Son of the Virgin Mary, and the Son of God; who "is before all things, was in the beginning with God, and is God." For this belief we have as ſatisfactory evidence as we could wiſh. I aſſure my readers, I have not produced even a ſpecimen of ſeveral kinds of argument and proof ſtill addu cible in ſupport of this moſt important truth. I truſt enough is brought forward to ſhew, that we are not worſhipping a Creature, inſtead of our Creator; that in "honoring the Son even as we honor the Father," we attribe to him only "the glory due to his name;" and that if we venture the ſalvation of our ſouls on the atonement he has made for ſin, and the prevailing efficacy of his interceſſion, we are not ſo likely to "bring upon ourſelves ſwift deſtruction," as thoſe "who deny the Lord that bought them," and treat as a worm of earth Him, who in Heaven is thought "worthy of receiving power, and riches, and wiſdom, and ſtrength, and honor, and glory, and bleſſing." P. 27.

Letter III ſhows,

"1ſt, What was the proper deſign and efficacy of the Jewiſh ſacrifices. 2ndly, What relation there is between them and the death of Chriſt. 3dly, How we are to interpret the immenſe body of texts, which appear to us to repreſent the death of Chriſt as fulfilling other ends, beſides ſealing the truth of his miſſion, &c." P. 30.

The arguments in this Letter cannot eaſily be epitomized, and we truſt many of our readers will chooſe to ſee them at length in the work itſelf.

Letter IV. on *Election*, is very brief; the author declining "to enter largely into it." We find him aſſerting, however, and we concur in the aſſertion, that in the eſtabliſhed Church of this land, "all extremes of Calviniſm and Arminianiſm are avoided, and in which, therefore, all moderate men may agree to worſhip God in ſpirit and in truth." P. 44. The following ſentiment is as candid as it is juſt:

"Though I conceive all deliberate ſeparatiſts from the religious eſtabliſhment of their country, except when compelled by the paramount command of a well informed conſcience, to be guilty of the ſin of ſchiſm, ſo ſeverely condemned in the word of God; yet I indulge a confident perſuaſion, that many Methodiſts and Calviniſts not in the boſom of the Church; and many perſons in the Church, ſuſpected as they unfortunately are, of "blind attachment to their Father's Creed," may be preſumed to be real Chriſtians, and led by the ſpirit of God, notwithſtanding their diſagreement with each other in ſome things. They may all belong to the real Church of Chriſt, and yet differ in opinion

opinion on ſome leſs important points, and may even have much of the ſpirit of contention and diviſion amongſt them. The Scriptures call the effects of the divine ſpirit upon the heart and character of a believer, a change; but they repreſent it as a progreſſive change: conſequently, while the change is incomplete, there is ſomething yet amiſs remaining, and that may be a ſpirit of diviſion and difference of opinion and practice in ſome ſubordinate matters of religion. But this will no more prove that the ſpirit is the author of diviſion and confuſion, than it will follow that the ſun is the author of cold, becauſe all are not completely warm upon whom he ſhines. St. Paul writes to the Church of Corinth, as "ſanctified in Chriſt Jeſus, and called to be Saints;" yet he beſeeches them, that there be "no diviſions, and envyings, and ſtrifes among them," and ſtates, that they were yet comparatively "carnal, and but babes in Chriſt;" yet ſanctified in Chriſt Jeſus, and Saints." P. 45.

Letter V. treats of the *Influence of the divine Spirit*; its ordinary operations in general; and its working faith in particular.

"The extraordinary gifts of the Holy Spirit are not now expected at all; no man, ſome enthuſiaſtic individuals excepted, now expects to be empowered to work miracles, or to have future events revealed, or to have any expreſs revelations and communications from heaven, "any ſecret whiſperings, or private interpretations, any dark inward work whatever upon the mind."

The enquiry, what is a true and ſaving Faith? is excellently conducted.

Letter VI. gives the following view of *the Fall of Man*:

"We believe that he can think and judge, weigh evidence, and feel the force of motives. We do not conſider him deſtitute of a natural power to do or avoid an action; we admit that he can read, hear, meditate, pray, examine himſelf, go to a place of worſhip, and avoid the way and practice of ſinners. We do not deny that he may, by his own unaſſiſted reaſon, by the help of the Scriptures and other writings, arrive at juſt ideas reſpecting the being and attributes of Jehovah, the doctrines of grace, and the line of duty which a believer ought to purſue. But we believe, that through the diſorder of his darkened underſtanding, and corrupted taſte, he does not of himſelf form ſpiritual and ſuitable conceptions, concerning the excellency of God's moral character. We believe, that whereas his duty is to love the Lord of God, with all his heart, with all his mind, with all his ſoul, and with all his ſtrength, he naturally does not love God, having a carnal mind, which is enmity againſt God. We believe that he is by nature radically corrupt in his will, affections, appetites, and tempers, and inclined to evil, and to no good; ſo as not to do that which is intrinſically good "without the grace of God preventing him that he may have a good will, and working with him when he hath that good will." We further believe, that this natural depravity inſtantly operates in leading us to the commiſſion of actual ſin, whereby we contract perſonal

perſonal guilt, and that the wages of ſin, of every ſin, is eternal death, eternal miſery, if not remitted." P. 71.

This view of fallen man is then "confirmed by the Holy Scripture; by the univerſal practice of men; and by the conſent of the generality of mankind." P. 73. The author then encounters ſome of the principal objections againſt this view of the fall, and againſt the collateral doctrine of the influences of the Divine Spirit, drawn from ſome ſuppoſed abſurdities and improbabilities in the doctrines themſelves. P. 83. We have read pp. 87, 88, with eſpecial ſatisfaction.

The concluding Letter VII. contains

"Remarks, 1. Upon the reaſons aſſigned by Mr. D. E. for his ſeparation from the eſtabliſhed Church. 2. Upon the qualifications neceſſary for a proper inveſtigation of religious Truth. 3. Upon his preſent ſyſtem, when contraſted with that which he has abandoned." P. 97.

Here, among other things, the hackneyed cavil againſt our Liturgy, for ſome expreſſions in the Burial-Service, when applied to men dying in a ſuppoſed ſtate of unrepented wickedneſs, are well conſidered and anſwered.

We ſtrongly recommend this tract, as a very argumentative, perſpicuous, and vigourous defence of Scripture Doctrines, as underſtood by the Church of England.

BRITISH CATALOGUE.

POETRY.

ART. 16. *The Holy Land: a Poem. By Francis Wrangham, M. A. Member of Trinity College, Cambridge.* 4to. 14 pp. 1s. 6d. Deighton, Cambridge; Mawman, London. 1800.

This Poem, it appears, obtained Mr. Seaton's reward, for the beſt Engliſh Poem, by a Maſter of Arts of the Univerſity of Cambridge, for the year 1800. It has, as might be expected, conſiderable merit; though we think the writer might have much improved it, by going further back into the hiſtory of "eventful Paleſtine", than the invaſion of it by Joſhua, with which the Poem commences; and that the death of Mr. Tweddell, at Athens, was neither of ſufficient importance, nor ſufficiently appoſite to the ſubject, to be properly introduced into a Poem of this ſacred nature. The author's diviſion of the ſub-

ject into the paſt, preſent, and (as far as it can be anticipated) the future ſtate of Paleſtine, is judicious; and certainly affords a wide ſcope for the diſplay of poetical powers. Of the execution of this plan, we cannot give a better ſpecimen than by extracting the following paſſage, which concludes the Poem.

" Yes! riſe it will, Judæa, that bleſt morn
In time's full lapſe (ſo rapt Iſaiah ſung)
Which to thy renovated plains ſhall give
Their ancient lords. Imperial fortune ſtill,
If right the Bard peruſe the myſtic ſtrain,
Waits thee, and thouſand years of ſceptred joy.
With furtive ſtep the fated hour leads on,
Like midnight thief, when from thy holy mount
Sorrow's ſhrill cry, and labour's needleſs toil,
And ſervitude ſhall ceaſe; when from above,
On living ſapphire ſeated and begirt
With cluſtering Cherubim, whoſe blaze outvies
Meridian ſuns, through heaven's diſparting arch
Thy recognized Meſſiah ſhall deſcend;
In royal Salem fix his central throne,
And rule with golden ſway the circling world.
Oh! come that day of glory, that bright ſpeck
Far in the dim horizon's utmoſt verge,
By Prophecy's unerring finger mark'd
To Faith's ſtrong eye—when, with th' innumerous good
Of every age, the white-robed ſaint ſhall ſtray
Through groves of Paradiſe, and drink unquench'd
Th' exhauſtleſs ſtream of ſcience! Seaton there,
Who bade to God the annual hymn aſcend;
There Newton, whoſe quick glance, through fartheſt ſpace
Darting, in every page of nature's code
Saw Deity inſcribed; and Paley there
(For why ſhould Praiſe, ſtill lingering 'round the tomb,
Her torch ſepulchral light but for the dead?)
From whoſe keen ſpear the atheiſt crew appall'd
Shrunk to their native night; with all, whoſe voice
And harmonizing life in virtue's cauſe
Their blended rhetoric pour'd, ſhall ſhine as ſtars;
Glowing in heaven's eternal firmament
With beam unchanged, while ſuns and worlds decay." P. 12.

Upon the whole, although more might perhaps have been made of this extenſive and highly intereſting topic, yet the performance before us muſt be deemed creditable to the genius of the author, and to the learned body to which he belongs.

ART. 17. *Mary Queen of Scots, an Hiſtorical Ballad; with other Poems. By a Lady.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale. 1800.

There is great ſimplicity and elegance in theſe Poems, as will ſufficiently appear by the following ſhort ſpecimens.

" To

"*To a Lady, on receiving from her a Toy, which had belonged to a departed Friend.*

The lightest gift that friendship makes,
A brittle shell, a fading flow'r,
From her soft touch a value takes
Above the dreams of wealth or pow'r.

But if the shell, the flow'r, were known
In scenes of bliss too fair to last,
They boast a magic all their own,
And give existence to the past.

Alas! each blended charm endears
To *my* fond heart this simple toy,
Bestow'd by her my soul reveres,
Memorial of departed joy."

"SONNET,
On leaving the Cottage of Lady E—— B——, and Miss P——."*

Dear mem'ry! guardian of each past delight,
Whose voice recals the fleeting form of joy,
Select such tints as time can ne'er destroy;
And in unfading hues serenely bright,
The lavish beauties of that vale unite,
Where friendship (only bliss unapt to cloy)
Taste, science, converse, all their spells employ,
And urge the circling hours with rapid flight.

The soft enchantment of the scene renew,
Re-echo oft the harp's melodious tale;
Inspir'd by thee, I still shall fondly view
The sweet recluses of Llangollen Vale,
Still catch the accents of their last adieu,
And still their mountain-bosom'd cottage hail."

ART. 18. *The Mince-Pye, an Heroic Epistle, humbly addressed to the Sovereign Dainty of a British Feast. By Caroline Petty Pasty.* 4to. 3s. 6d. Bensley. 1800.

This is a playful, good-humoured, and facetious trifle, ridiculing the splendid and truly magnificent publication of the SOVEREIGN, by Mr. Pybus. It is dedicated to the veritable *Sovereign* of a British table, namely, a Plum-Pudding. A short specimen will show the author's object and talent. It is an address to Mince-Pye.

"Illustrious Pye! O, could thy sweets infuse
Their faint resemblance in the anxious Muse,
Then in high-seasoned song her voice should raise
Strains less unequal to thy dainty praise!

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* Certainly, Lady Eleanor Butler and Miss Ponsonby.

But

But what, alas! avails the kitchen fire?
Its ſmoke half ſuffocates, its blazes tire;
Vain are the pot-hooks that adorn its crane,
Its whirling jack, and ſhining ranges vain,
To grace Mince-Pye; though they from it receive
The deathleſs fame Mince-Pye alone can give.
Since then eſtabliſhed Mince-Meat thus defies
The pow'r of luxury, that never dies:
The ſplendid diſh and plate how much more vain,
Of periſhable glaſs or porcelain,
Tho' pott'ries be exhaulted, millions ſpent,
The glutton's paunch is Mince-Pye's monument.
And thou, loſt meſs, which civil diſcord gave
An early victim to oblivious grave,
Whate'er thy faults, Plum-porridge (who has none?)
Amply thy excellencies might atone,
When ſmoking hot, thy ſpicy vapours croſt
The morning keenneſs of a Chriſtmas froſt.
Thee, ſour Reſerve, in ſable garments dight,
Fanatic gloom excluding Reaſon's light,
And Av'rice o'er the ſaveall's dying flame,
Shall ever execrate and hate thy name;
While Hoſpitality's regretful tear
Shall drop a tribute on thy mournful bier.
But Fate ſo will'd! nor let theſe realms deplore
The mixt event, that left one dainty more.
Yes! though a cuſtard left, which Betty ſtirs
With porridge richneſs in her porringers;
And in whoſe ſmooth, ſoft texture, Pleaſure ſaw
The ſweeteſt ſoother for a toothleſs jaw.
Their public zeal for this it well becomes
Rich Aldermen to mark in pond'rous tomes;
But where he is, the ableſt bards among,
Who hopes to name their wond'rous feats in ſong?
Vain were the taſk: nor let them once ſuppoſe
The Muſe ſuch mighty deeds could e'er diſcloſe:
Weak the attempt their eatings to rehearſe,
Though childiſh fondneſs might endure the verſe:
Nor can ſhe deem it meet; for ſhould as high
As jellies pil'd on ſalvers, volumes lie,
And cloud-capt heaps of panegyric raiſe,
This couplet would contain their ſum of praiſe;
"They ſeized, with greedy haſte, the cuſtard's ſtore,
"And fairly eat till they could eat no more!" P. 15.

Mr. Pybus's Poem was adorned with a ſuperb engraving of the Imperial Crown of Ruſſia; to this Poem a Mince-Pye is prefixed: and, to correſpond with the Portrait of Mr. Pybus, we have here a Portrait of the celebrated Mrs. Glaſſe, in the act of taking a drop of Cherry Bounce!

ART. 19. *Convivialia et Saltatoria; or, a few Thoughts upon Feasting and Dancing, a Poem. In Two Parts. To which is annexed, A Poetical Epistle in Praise of Tobacco. By G. Orchestikos. In Page 38, is a Letter from the late amiable Poet, William Cowper, Esq. relative to the Poem on Tobacco.* Small 8vo. 62 pp. 1s. West and Hughes. 1800.

In these *Thoughts in verse*, the reader must not expect any thing like *Poetry*. The "Convivialia et Saltatoria" contain a long account of a corporation feast, and a subsequent ball. These have often been topics of merriment to the writers of ludicrous verses, but have seldom been described with less ingenuity or humour than in those before us. The writer seems fond of the measure so successfully adopted by Mr. Anstey, and writes it, in general, with tolerable fluency, though there are occasionally very faulty lines; but as to the wit and knowledge of the human character, which give the zest to that author's compositions, this work is a mere caput mortuum. Neither have the other Poems any spirit or humour to recommend them. No wonder that Mr. Cowper declined a contest with such an antagonist. His good-humoured and gentleman-like letter on the occasion, is the most valuable part of the publication.

ART. 20. *Britons United; or, Britannia Roused. In humble Verse, upon different Subjects before and subsequent to the Battle of the Nile, applauding the patriotic and persevering Spirit of our brave Countrymen, is humbly presented by John Stewart, late of Mr. Secretary Dundas's Office, Downing-Street.* 8vo. 69 pp. 2s. Stewart. 1800.

This loyal, and, we doubt not, worthy person, seems to have been fitter for the place he held in Mr. Dundas's office (that of a messenger) than a seat on Parnassus. Perhaps he was encouraged to this attempt by the consideration, that Mercury, the *messenger* of the Gods, was also a patron of Poets. His loyalty, at all events, deserves praise, whatever may be said of his poetry: for, as he justly observes, in his Address to the reader,

> "What subject is more important and truly great,
> Than the providential preservation of our king and state?"

And, indeed, after reading the following lines, what critic would use the "rod" which the author deprecates?

> "Yet, when it is offered as the widow's might,
> He'll spare the rod, and not lash me tight:
> Though unlearned and illiterate, if he loyal feels,
> In his country's cause may use his head and heels.
> As for me, I've run and rode my best,
> From the north and south, and from the east and west,
> Long run the fountain that affords me rest."

We heartily join in this wish. Long may it run! although its waters seem not endued with the quality ascribed to those of Helicon.

ART.

ART. 21. *An Elegy, ſuppoſed to be written in the Garden of Iſpahan, dedicated to her Grace Georgiana Ducheſs of Devonſhire. By Merwan Ebn Abdallah Melek.* 4to. 1s. Weſt and Hughes. 1800.

The Oriental obſcurity of this Elegy is beyond the reach of European critics. If the author be truly a Perſian, he writes Engliſh wonderfully well; if an Engliſhman, he writes it wonderfully ill. In almoſt every ſtanza there is a verb plural joined with a ſubſtantive ſingular, or the contrary; beſides other grammatical and rhythmical ſoleciſms: yet the metre is ſmooth and well cadenced.

DRAMATIC.

ART. 22. *The Point of Honour: a Play, in Three Acts. Taken from the French, and performed with univerſal Applauſe at the Theatre-Royal, Hay-Market. By Charles Kemble.* 8vo. 62 pp. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1800.

This dramatic piece cannot properly be claſſed either among comedies or tragedies, and is therefore called by the author a play. The fable is briefly this: Durimel, a young ſoldier of fortune, but who, on account of an indignity offered to him by his colonel, had deſerted from a French regiment, is admitted into the family of Mrs. Melfort, a widow lady reſiding in a town on the German frontier, and acts as a ſort of ſteward or manager of her concerns. In this ſituation, he becomes enamoured of Bertha, the daughter of Mrs. Melfort; who, impreſſed with a ſenſe of his merits, and finding the attachment to be mutual, conſents to their union. Juſt at this period, the very regiment from which Durimel had deſerted enters the town, and two of the officers are quartered in Mrs. Melfort's houſe. At this period Steinberg, a neighbour of Mrs. Melfort, and rival of Durimel, having diſcovered his ſecret, betrays it. He is ſeized, tried, and condemned; when the major of the regiment, a venerable old officer (who had lately come into that corps) diſcovers him to be his ſon. Some affecting ſcenes enſue; and both the father and ſon, on a *point of honour*, reject a plan for the eſcape of the latter, as the major had paſſed his word for his appearance. At laſt, when the ſentence is to be executed, the major (having firſt, as his duty required, given the ſignal to "fire") throws himſelf into the arms of his ſon, in order to die with him. This diſcovery produces a pardon, through the interceſſion of the colonel's ſon, a pert and volatile, but good-natured young man; whoſe character and manners form, in the early part of the piece, ſome little relief to the tragic ſcenes of which it is moſtly compoſed.

We do not remember to have ſeen the original of this drama; but the general ſtyle of the tranſlation (or imitation) is unexceptionable; and, as it is intereſting in the peruſal, it muſt have been ſtill more ſo in the repreſentation.

NOVEL.

ART. 23. *Eliſe Dumenil; par Marie de Comarien Marquiſe de Montalambert. Five Volumes.* 12mo. 12s. 6d. Dulau. 1800.

This novel is written in very eaſy and elegant French, and exhibits a pleaſing but melancholy ſtory. Towards the concluſion it becomes peculiarly intereſting. We may certainly commend the ingenuity of the author, and can only object, that perhaps to ſome readers the narrative may appear rather tediouſly protracted.

MEDICINE.

Cow-Pox.

ART. 24. *A comparative Statement of Facts and Obſervations relative to the Cow-Pox. Publiſhed by Doctors Jenner and Woodville.* 4to. 43 pp. 5s. Hurſt. 1800.

On firſt reading the title to this pamphlet, we might conceive it to be the joint production of Doctors Jenner and Woodville, inſtead of being, as it really is, an examination and compariſon of the opinions of thoſe gentlemen on the ſubject, by an anonymous writer, with every where, we ſhould add, a ſtrong bias in favour of thoſe of Dr. Jenner. As both, however, have been amply diſcuſſed in our former numbers, and no new facts or obſervations are here adduced, it ſeems unneceſſary to notice them further. A neat, coloured engraving, repreſenting the ſmall-pox, and the cow-pox, in different ſtages of the complaints, is prefixed, which ſeemed neceſſary to account for the extraordinary price of five ſhillings, charged for this ſlender publication.

ART. 25. *A conciſe View of all the moſt important Facts which have hitherto appeared concerning the Cow-Pox. By C. R. Aikin, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London, &c.* 12mo. 118 pp. 2s. 6d. Phillips. 1800.

It is a ſingular circumſtance in the hiſtory of human knowledge, that there are many facts of conſiderable importance, with which we remain acquainted for ages, perhaps, without turning our attention to them, or procuring from them the advantages they are capable of producing. It is now clearly aſcertained, that the cow-pox has been known, as well as that it was communicable to the human ſpecies, and had the power of guaranteeing them from the ſmall-pox, from time immemorial. The knowledge of this property of the cow-pox was not confined to the mere ruſtic, to thoſe who milked, or were proprietors of cows. We have the teſtimony of ſeveral ſurgeons of character, who now tell us, that they recollect, when they were inoculating certain pariſhes for the ſmall-pox, being told by ſome of the individuals, that they would readily conſent to undergo the operation; but that they could not have the diſeaſe, as they had

had had the cow-pox; and they add, that thoſe ſubjects could not be made to receive the ſmall pox. Yet this pointed and remarkable circumſtance led to no enquiry, until Doctor Jenner fortunately, within theſe two or three years, undertook the inveſtigation of the buſineſs. In this taſk he has been ably and amply ſeconded and ſupported, ſo that we have already a body of facts, collected by practitioners from every part of the kingdom, and from many places on the continent, where vaccine inoculation is conſtantly carrying on, all tending to prove the ſame circumſtance; namely, that perſons who have paſſed through the genuine cow-pox, can never afterwards be infected with the ſmall-pox. In the courſe of the numerous experiments that have been made, and we underſtand more than 30,000 perſons have been inoculated with vaccine matter, it has appeared that the diſturbance it produces in the conſtitution is ſo inſignificant, that children, within a few hours from their birth, and women in every ſtage of their pregnancy, may undergo the diſeaſe with the moſt perfect ſafety; that there are rarely, or never, any puſtules, except on the inoculated part; and that it is not communicable by the breath, or by effluvia from the bodies of perſons infected with it. On the other hand, we know that the ſmall-pox, communicated by inoculation, in the moſt guarded and cautious manner, turns out, every now and then, to be of the confluent kind, and in ſuch caſes is as dangerous and fatal as when received in the common way; and that the effluvia from the inoculated, is as certainly infectious as that from the natural ſmall pox. Great care, however, muſt be taken, leſt, by negligence or inattention, the benefits of this diſcovery of the ſalutary properties we have mentioned, as poſſeſſed by the cow-pox, be loſt, and the practice brought into diſrepute. It is particularly neceſſary for us to be cautious in aſſuring ourſelves that it is the matter of the genuine cow-pox which we uſe, and not matter of a ſpurious kind, which in ſome degree reſembles it; alſo that we mark the ſymptoms, that they follow in due order, before we pronounce our patient to have paſſed through the diſeaſe. This conſideration leads us to the little volume before us, the reading of which gave birth to the reflections we have here detailed. The author, conſidering the number of publications already produced on the ſubject, and that each of them contained ſomething neceſſary to be known, thought he ſhould be doing an acceptable ſervice by compreſſing, and bringing all that was material into a ſmall compaſs. This he has done in a neat and judicious manner, and has produced a work that will be extremely uſeful to perſons who have not leiſure to read all the works on the ſubject that are publiſhed; or who, living at a diſtance from the metropolis, cannot readily obtain them.

ART. 26. *Practical Obſervations on the Inoculation of the Cow-Pox. To which is prefixed, a compendious Hiſtory of that Diſeaſe; and of its Introduction as a preventative of the Small-Pox. By John Addington, Surgeon.* 8vo. 50 pp. 1s. 6d. Johnſon. 1801.

The author of this little work has adopted a plan ſimilar to that of the preceding, and has executed it, we will add, with propriety and judgment; ſtating the few points on which there have been any controverſy

or difference of opinion, and every where ſhowing a perfect knowledge of the ſubject. He has, beſides, given the reſult of his own practice, which appears to have been conſiderable, and tends to confirm the favourable opinion, now pretty generally entertained, of vaccine inoculation.

DIVINITY.

ART. 27. *The Nature and Danger of Infidel Philoſophy, exhibited in Two Diſcourſes, addreſſed to the Candidates for the Baccalaureate in Yale College, September 9, 1797. By the Rev. Timothy Dwight, D. D. Preſident of Yale College. With a recommendatory Addreſs, by the Rev. Dr. Ryland, and the Rev. Mr. Fuller.* Reprinted at Briſtol; and ſold by Hurſt, Button, and Chapman, London. 1799.

Dr. Dwight has been already known to us as a poet (ſee vol x, p. 472) and he appears in theſe Diſcourſes to great advantage as a philoſopher and as a divine. That a name ſo well eſtabliſhed as that of Dr. Dwight, ſhould receive recommendation from two perſons comparatively unknown, to us appears whimſical; but there was probably ſome local reaſon for it, where the tract was reprinted. Of the author, however, we learn from their Addreſs, that his appointment, as Preſident of Yale College, at New-Haven in America, took place in 1795; and that he is the grandſon of Preſident Edwards. It is alſo juſtly remarked by them, that "his natural turn for poetry, without diminiſhing the ſolidity of his reaſoning, imparts to his proſaic compoſitions a conciſe, impreſſive, and glowing energy."

Theſe Diſcourſes are of the moſt uſeful kind, and fully evince, among other points, that the author has carefully ſtudied the Philoſophy he deſcribes. He ſhows at large the inconſiſtencies of the modern infidel philoſophers with each other, and with themſelves, by ample compariſons of their opinions deduced from their own writings. But he is particularly excellent in warning young men againſt their ſeductions. The difficulty of reſiſting ridicule, at that period of life, is explained with ſingular judgment and perſpicuity.

"Unworthy and unſatisfactory as this method of attacking Chriſtianity appears, and in ſpite of the ſtrong preſumptions againſt a cauſe, which has ever needed and reſorted to it, you will find no ſmall danger from theſe very weapons. You will dread to become the objects of ſcorn, and to be wounded by the ſhafts of deriſion. You will be afraid to declare yourſelves friends to a cauſe, which has been the ſtanding jeſt of ſo many men of wit, and which has been ſo often and ſo publickly holden up to ſyſtematized contempt; to which inſult is merit, and mockery a faſhion.

"Young novices in human affairs, doubtful of our own ſtrength, partially acquainted with this great controverſy, ardently coveting eſteem, and trembling at the approach of diſreputation, you will need no common ſhare of fortitude, no frequent degree of ſelf-command, to ſtand the ſhock, to examine the true character of the contending parties, and to diſcern the real nature of the conflicting cauſes. Could you aſſume this fortitude, and accompliſh this examination, the dan-

ger would vaniſh; but you will be aſſailed ſo often, and ſo powerfully, that, perplexed before by the arguments which I have mentioned, you will be in imminent danger of yielding yourſelves a prey, to avoid the fatigues of an arduous and unremitted conteſt, and to ſhun the aſſaults of an enemy, who not only points his arrows with ſteel, but dips them in poiſon." P. 58.

As theſe Diſcourſes may properly be ſtyled, the Young Man of Education's Preventative againſt the Infidelity of the Times, in that character we wiſh to ſee them known and circulated. We have no where ſeen ſo much rational oppoſition to deiſtical writers, compreſſed within ſo narrow a compaſs.

ART. 28. *Sermons on practical and important Subjects; with a Preface, particularly addreſſed to Candidates for Orders, and the younger Clergy. By Philip Henvill. Vol. I.* 8vo. 205 pp. 7s. 6d. Eaſton, Saliſbury; Egerton, London. 1799.

Mr. H. is one of the moſt notable preface-writers we ever met with. In the courſe of 137 pages, topics ſo numerous and various are diſcuſſed, that we can ſcarcely give an account of them, and much leſs of their connection. The excellence of the Liturgy, the proper mode of reading it, and ſome biblical criticiſms, are tolerably well connected together; then digreſſion begins. Great diſpleaſure is expreſſed, from p. 47 to p. 54, at the phraſe "inferior clergy"; as if any thing more were meant by it than a ſubordinacy of ſtation in the church. We do not think it is ever uſed contemptuouſly or diſreſpectfully. Criticiſm then recurs; and advice is given concerning the ſtyle and compoſition of Sermons, the partial inſpiration of the Scriptures is maintained, and the reſidence of the clergy on their benefices is ſhown to be highly important. A ſudden tranſition is now made to public-houſes, which are reprobated, not more ſtrongly than they deſerve; and another tranſition, ſtill more extraordinary, from the ſignature of certificates for publicans, to that of teſtimonials for candidates for holy orders. We now come to tithes in kind, the claim to which is carried as far back as Abraham; the allowance of *land*, in lieu of tithes, is diſapproved of, contrary, we believe, to the judgment of thoſe, in general, who have received it; and the letting of glebe and tithes to reſident curates, in preference to all other perſons, is properly recommended. Churchwardens and briefs conclude this miſcellaneous Preface; in which, with all its redundancies of ſtyle and matter, clergymen may find ſeveral hints not unuſeful to them and their flocks.

The Sermons are in number ſeven: On the Duties of the Miniſters; Charity; the true Character of Neighbour; Slander; Reliance on God's Mercy, in Oppoſition to Spiritual Pride; Conſcience; and Death. There are very few things in this volume to which we find occaſion to object. Among thoſe few are the following paſſages; our reaſons for objecting to which need not be formally ſtated, as they will be obvious to moſt of our readers. "Nay, of ſo ſuperior a nature is Charity, that we are aſſured it will alone "cover a multitude of ſins." As none of us, therefore, are free from ſin, it ſurely is incumbent on us all to embrace ſo eaſy, ſo efficacious a remedy." P. 54.—

"We

"We ſeem indeed to be "fallen on evil days"; and we have reaſon to lament, either that the many illuſtrious and eminent examples, which hiſtory records, are too highly exaggerated, or that the world is now become more callous and indifferent, and leſs ſuſceptible of the virtues of philanthropy and benevolence." P. 92.—"Look through the world!—Examine the conduct, and the treatment of individuals, in every department, in every ſtage of ſociety—the high and the low—the rich and the poor—the old and the young—and you will very rarely find an inſtance of true and genuine friendſhip." P. 94.

Where there is ſo little cauſe to blame, it is painful to ſay, that there is not much room for ſtrong recommendation. Theſe Sermons are, in truth, conſtructed of ſlight materials, not very ſkilfully put together; the ſentiments contained in them are generally trite, and as we have ſeen, not always juſt; the argumentation, if it may be ſo called, is deſultory; and the ſtyle is homely.

ART. 29. *A Sermon, preached at the Pariſh Church of Childwall, near Liverpool, the 21ſt of December, 1800, being the Day on which his Majeſty's Proclamation was read, recommending Œconomy in the Conſumption of Grain. By the Rev. J. Sharpe, Miniſter of the ſaid Church. Publiſhed at the Requeſt of the Congregation.* 8vo. 24 pp. 1s. Jones, Liverpool; Rivingtons, London. 1800.

This diſcourſe contains a ſtrong and ſcriptural remonſtrance, addreſſed to the feelings and conſciences of thoſe who endeavour to enrich themſelves, by extorting from their countrymen an exorbitant and unneceſſary price for articles of indiſpenſable uſe. Though we have expreſſed our opinion, that the remedy of *a maximum* would be worſe than the diſeaſe, we are by no means without ſomewhat more than a ſuſpicion, that the farmers are acting very unfairly by the reſt of the community; and we truſt that the legiſlature will ſtill deviſe ſome effectual, and yet ſafe method, of counteracting their unfeeling machinations. It is the univerſal rage of avarice which moſt ſtrongly threatens us with deſtruction. Some reaſonings upon political compact, and ſuch falſe ſyſtems, we could have wiſhed expunged from the opening of this otherwiſe valuable Sermon.

ART. 30. *A Farewell Sermon, preached at Market-Deeping, on Sunday, April 6, 1800. By the Rev. Robert Laſcelles Carr, late Curate of that Pariſh, and now Curate of the Pariſh of All Saints in Stamford.* 8vo. 26 pp. 1s. Drakard, Stamford; Weſt and Hughes, London.

A plain and affectionate addreſs, in which the preacher, from 2 Cor. xiii. 11, admoniſhes his hearers very earneſtly concerning their profanation, or partial ſanctification of the Sabbath; their diſregard of the duty of public prayer, whenever preaching was not added to it; (which is a fault, or error, very general) their neglect of the Holy Communion; and their diſſenſions and animoſities. He then warmly thanks them for their favourable acceptance of his ſervices, and their unſucceſsful endeavours to fix him among them, by obtaining for him the benefice. The preacher does not aim at any diſplay of talents or eloquence, but only to expreſs the ſentiments of a zealous and faithful miniſter

miniſter of religion. To the praiſe of having done this well, he is amply entitled.

ART. 31. *The friendly Call of Truth and Reaſon, to a new Species of Diſſenters. By the Rev. Edward Barry, M. D.* 8vo. 142 pp. 2s. Elmſly and Bremner, London; Smart and Cowſlade, Reading. 1799.

The new ſpecies of Diſſenters, to whom this Call is addreſſed, is not to be diſregarded either by the church or the ſtate, for its numbers, or its activity, whatever it may be on other accounts. It conſiſts of thoſe, "who have ſeparated from the communion of the eſtabliſhed church, on the plea that the *goſpel* is not preached there." P. 11. A great part of this tract is occupied by a ſtatement of local diſputes within the town of Reading; which happen at preſent (we fear) more than uſual, in other populous places; and which the *goſpel-preachers*, (as they have dubbed themſelves) ſeem zealous to extend throughout the kingdom. This is, therefore, a ſeaſonable, as well as friendly Call; ſtating 1ſt. "negatively, what the clergy do *not* uſually preach, (particularly on the 17th article) and then pointing out the goſpel which they actually do preach." P. 58. At p. 80, &c. ſome minor conſiderations are adverted to; and ſome things are ſtated, we think, not quite accurately, or judiciouſly. But, in general, the tract correſponds well to the title prefixed to it.

ART. 32. *The Neceſſity of Union among Chriſtians, that with one Heart and Mouth they may glorify God. A Sermon, preached before the Univerſity of Cambridge, on Sunday, Auguſt 24, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. Fellow of Sydney-Suſſex College, Cambridge.* 4to. 20 pp. 1s. Deighton, Cambridge; Hurſt, &c. London. 1800.

ART. 33. *The Afflictions of England a Warning from God. A Sermon, preached before the Univerſity of Cambridge, on Sunday, Nov. 2, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. Fellow of Sydney-Suſſex College.* 4to. 16 pp. 1s. The ſame Printer, &c. 1800.

Theſe two Diſcourſes, from the ſame author, evince a ſtrong, but in general a well-regulated, zeal for whatever is holy, whatever is praiſe-worthy. If the writer ever breaks out into any thing enthuſiaſtic, it is rather in his notes than in the Sermons themſelves.

In the firſt of theſe Sermons, he comments on the words of the Apoſtle, Epheſ. iv, 4, &c. Ἓν σῶμα, καὶ ἓν πνεῦμα, &c. and, with Grotius and others, explains the *body* there mentioned, to mean the general body of the Church; the unity of which conſiſts in having Chriſt as the one head, and the ſeveral ſubordinate parts fitly joined together. He is ſtrong againſt ſchiſm, conſiders epiſcopal confirmation, and epiſcopal ordination, as undoubtedly of apoſtolical inſtitution: and even prays (in a note) to be delivered from the theology which doubts any part of the poſition. We are as averſe to ſchiſm as he; but we look for thoſe things, which are to be deemed abſolutely indiſpenſable, in the Scriptures only.

In

In the ſecond Diſcourſe, Mr. L. maintains the providential government of nations; and powerfully warns his countrymen to ſeek righteouſneſs, as the only method by which they can avert the further wrath of God.

LAW.

ART. 34. *The Office of Sheriff: ſhewing its Hiſtory, Antiquity, Powers, and Duties; the Manner of appointing the High-Sheriff, his under Sheriff, and other Deputies. Alſo the Election of Sheriffs of London and Middleſex, with the Bye-Laws of the City relating thereto; and other uſeful Matter. Together with the Nature of Actions, by and againſt Sheriffs, including all the modern Determinations to the End of Trinity-Term laſt; with neceſſary Precedents of Returns to Writs, &c. The Second Edition, corrected and conſiderably improved. To which is added, the Office and Duty of Coroner. With an Appendix of uſeful Precedents. By John Impey, of the Inner-Temple.* 8vo. 782 pp. 12s. Butterworth. 1800.

The firſt edition of that part of Mr. Impey's work which relates to the office of ſheriff, was publiſhed prior to the commencement of our Review. It is therefore beyond our deſign to enter into a minute examination of its merit. So far as we have peruſed it, it ſeems an uſeful work, conducted on a ſimilar plan to that of the Practice of the Court of King's Bench and Common Pleas, written by the ſame gentleman. Much is borrowed, and properly ſo, from Dalton's Treatiſe on the ſame ſubject; but in ſome places without a due acknowledgment of the debt.

Part of that author's information alſo, which might be occaſionally uſeful, is altogether omitted. In general, however, Mr. I. departs from his predeceſſor with diſcretion, and his book contains a great deal of modern learning, which will be found uſeful, not merely to thoſe who execute the office of ſheriff, but to all who are connected with the practice of the law.

The Appendix to the treatiſe on the Office and Duty of Coroners, contains precedents of inquiſitions, and ſeveral other forms, neceſſary to be known by thoſe who are called upon to diſcharge that employment. The body of the work is ſcarcely of ſufficient importance to provoke a criticiſm on its various defects. It is a meagre and unſatisfactory performance. Many of the modern reported caſes, which are to be found in the common abridgments of the law, are paſſed by without any notice. The following omiſſions occurred to us upon a very ſlight inveſtigation: 1 Strange, 22; ib. 167; ib. 261; Andrews, 235; Sayer, 249; Nolan, 142. The practical remarks and directions for the proceedings in court, ſeem accurately done, and will be found highly neceſſary to thoſe who are called upon to execute the office of coroner, without any previous acquaintance with its duties.

ART.

ART. 35. *The Practical Regiſter in Chancery, with the Addition of the modern Caſes: and a copious Index. By John Wyatt, of the Inner-Temple, Eſq. Barriſter at Law.* 8vo. 492 pp. 10s. 6d. Butterworth. 1800.

The Practical Regiſter has been long conſidered as a very uſeful book to the Chancery practitioner. It has been cited as ſuch by Lord Hardwicke, and ſucceeding Chancellors. Being out of print, Mr. Wyatt was induced to undertake the preſent edition; and he has added ſuch points as have been decided in equity ſince the time of his author. But he has properly preſerved the original work entire and diſtinct from his own additions, by an appropriate mark. Where the arrangement and mode of abridging the caſe was previouſly pointed out, little more was left for Mr. W. than to inſert the marginal abſtracts of the ſeveral reporters, under their proper heads. All that could be expected from the editor, in ſuch a taſk, he ſeems to have accompliſhed.

ART. 36. *An Examination of the Statutes now in Force, relating to the Aſſize of Bread; with Remarks on the Bill intended to be brought into Parliament by the Country Bakers. By James Naſmith, D. D. One of His Majeſty's Juſtices of the Peace for the County of Cambridge and Iſle of Ely.* 8vo. 85 pp. 2s. 6d. White, Wiſbech; Rivingtons, London. 1800.

The unfortunate harveſt of 1800, and the provident laws which have been enacted in conſequence of it, have rendered a minute account of this tract ſuperfluous for the preſent. It may be uſeful, however, with a view to future circumſtances, to ſtate the author's intention; and to make a few remarks upon his book, deſigned for its improvement, upon any republication of it. "My intention is to inquire into the principles on which the tables of aſſize, in the ſtatutes of 31 Geo. II. c. 29, and 13 Geo. III. c. 62, have been formed; to inveſtigate how far they uniformly adhere [to] or deviate from theſe principles; to point out how the irregularities, for ſuch will be found to exiſt, affect the prices or weight of bread; and to point out the means of remedying theſe irregularities, and correcting the tables, ſo as to make them ſtrictly conformable to their principles. And becauſe objections have been brought againſt the very principles on which the preſent tables are conſtructed, I ſhall conſider how a new and general table may be formed, not liable to the ſame objections." P. 2. Pages 5, 6, 7, Dr. N. is witty at the expence of Mr. Heſlop. But wit is apt to recoil upon thoſe who ſport with it. Does Dr. N. ſuppoſe, that twenty peck loaves are equal to a ſack of wheat weighing twenty ſtone? A peck loaf is required to weigh 17 lb. 6 oz.—A ſtone of flour will produce almoſt 19 lb. of bread. If Dr. N.'s tables are calculated on a ſuppoſition, that the twentieth part of a ſack of flour, and a peck loaf, weighing 17 lb. 6 oz. are equal, he muſt not be allowed a triumph over Mr. Heſlop.

P. 8. We do not agree that a ſack of flour, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ buſhels of wheat, are equal.

P. 15.

P. 15. If 7½ buſhels of wheat be more than equivalent to a ſack of flour fit for wheaten bread (which we think is the caſe) then the bakers have a latent ſource of gain, of which the author of this table ſeems not aware.

The admonition given to Mr. H. at p. 41, is correct. From p. 47 to p. 51, the matter is important.

P. 55. The bakers may juſtly require, that the average ſhall be taken from the *aggregate* quantity of wheat ſold.

The note, at p. 59, is very remarkable. The *habit of the bakers* ſeems to be an inadmiſſible reaſon. Juſtices are required to ſet the aſſize from the price of corn, meal, or flour, in the particular or neighbouring market.

P. 60. The allowance to the baker ought not to be abſolutely ſettled. For example: more ought to be allowed when wheat is bad than when it is good.

P. 64. Dr. N. juſtly objects to an exemption of bakers from puniſhment, for deficiency in weight, unleſs the ſame be aſcertained within a number of *hours* after baking. Their deſign muſt have been to eſcape puniſhment altogether. But, as it often happens *in their buſineſs*, they have here *overdone* the thing.

P. 69. It is ſurely very expedient, that the price of *flour* ſhould be ſet.

P. 77. To the remedy propoſed, we would ſubjoin a more extenſive encouragement of the growth of wheat, eſpecially by a ſteady ſyſtem of corn-laws.

The induſtry and judgment of this worthy magiſtrate demand our moſt cordial approbation; and we hope they will prove highly ſerviceable to the public, in better times.

POLITICS.

ART. 37. *An Eſtimate of the Number of Inhabitants in Great Britain and Ireland. By Sir Frederick Morton Eden, Bart.* 93 pp. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1800.

The diſpleaſure expreſſed in Scripture againſt David's enumeration of the people of his kingdom, aroſe, no doubt, from the motive which prompted him to adopt the meaſure, and not from the meaſure itſelf. Far from undertaking it on any well-founded plan, or proſpect of turning it to the advantage of his ſubjects, he ſeems to have been actuated by an ill-founded pride in his political ſtrength, which, under his peculiar circumſtances, was juſtly offenſive to him who was, truly and excluſively, *the ſtrength of Iſrael*. In itſelf, ſuch a meaſure is, beyond all queſtion, not only without blame, but highly meritorious; as it enables us to lay the foundation of all political regulations on the only baſis on which, as human expedients, they can ſafely reſt.

Believing, therefore, this great empire to be, in proportion to its population, the moſt powerful that either is, or ever was, in the world, we rejoice to ſee the moſt promiſing attempts that we believe were ever made, to reduce the knowledge of that population, to every thing

ſhort

ſhort of abſolute certainty. An actual enumeration of the people, under the authority of, and according to, the judicious regulations preſcribed by an Act of Parliament, ſeems to be going, as far as human wiſdom can go, towards removing all doubt and uncertainty. Yet it may be doubted, whether even an actual enumeration, ſubject as it muſt be to various great and inſuperable diſadvantages, when made, will be more certain, and more to be depended on, than the ingenious deductions contained in the ſmall pamphlet now under our conſideration. Nor have we any heſitation to declare, that we regard this manly reſolution of this reſpectable Baronet, to venture his calculations abroad, when there is a certainty of their being ſo ſoon confronted with what moſt men will deem poſitive proof and irreſiſtible demonſtration, as not only a liberal avowal of his juſt confidence in the truth of his calculations, but as one of the faireſt appeals to the candour of the public that can be made.

Sir Frederick founds his calculations on authentic liſts of baptiſms, burials, aſſeſſed houſes, marriages, and population, of a variety of different places, under various circumſtances, in various diſtricts of the kingdom; together with another liſt of houſes inhabited, houſes uninhabited, and houſes exempted from duty, obtained from the Tax-Office. Theſe are exhibited in ſeveral tables, which furniſh the following reſults:

1. That the baptiſms are to the burials, as . . . 10 to 8$\frac{1}{5}$
2. That the aſſeſſed houſes are to the baptiſms, as 10 to 4$\frac{2}{3}$
3. That the baptiſms are to the marriages, as . . 3 to 1 nearly*
4. That the baptiſms are to the population, as 1 to 27$\frac{1}{4}$
5. That the aſſeſſed houſes are to the population, as . . . . . 1 to 14$\frac{1}{2}$
6. That the aſſeſſed houſes are to the marriages, as . . . . . 78 to 10
7. That the marriages are to the population, as 1 to 139*

From theſe data, which are, in moſt caſes, the reſult of actual enumeration, he calculates, in a manner which to us ſeems to be incontrovertible, that the number of inhabitants in England and Wales, is 10,710,000; in Scotland, at leaſt 1,500,000; in Ireland, 3,800,000; maritime and military population, excluſive of Indian and foreign corps, 500,000; ſo that the total population of the Britiſh Iſles, is 16,510,000. Amid the many dark clouds that have ſo long obſcured our horizon, we cordially rejoice with the author, that, "among all the diſtreſſes of the times, we have not to deplore a declining population."

Sir F. E. reprobates as unwarrantable, if not miſchievous, the lamentations of thoſe political œconomiſts, who imagine, "that great cities are inimical to the multiplication of the ſpecies; that a devouring metropolis drains the country of its inhabitants; that the conſolidation of ſmall farms leſſens the number of cultivators; and that,

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* In theſe inſtances we have taken the liberty of correcting, what appear from the context, to have been errors of the tranſcriber or printer. *Rev.*

though

though trade and manufactures may flouriſh, the hardy ſtock of yeomen and induſtrious peaſants decays.

"Deſerted villages in Great Britain," he ſays, "are now only to be found in the fictions of poetry. The reſult of theſe enquiries, I am perſuaded, will prove (as far as indirect evidence can prove) that our agricultural pariſhes are better ſtocked than they were 100 years ago, when induſtry had not purged the country of its ſuperfluous mouths, and the viſionary evils aſcribed to the exiſtence of commercial and agricultural capitaliſts did not exiſt."

The cauſes of ſo rapid an increaſe in our population within the laſt century, are aſſigned in pp. 82 and 83; and, ſpeaking of Scotland, in p. 85, it is well obſerved, that, "at length, full employment has been found for her people, even in diſtricts the moſt inauſpicious to induſtry; on her weſtern coaſt, eternally buffeted by the Atlantic, thriving villages, and nurſeries for ſeamen, have been eſtabliſhed in places which, before the preſent reign, were "antres vaſt and deſerts idle." There the tillage of the ſea offers crops more abundant (and in the preſent period no leſs important) than the produce of the earth. Britons have at length diſcovered, that colonies may be planted on the ſhores and waſtes of their own country. They are now generally convinced, that there is no "happier iſland in the watry waſte," than their own; and that in no part of the world have they a fairer chance of bettering their fortunes, than in the cultivated plains and buſy cities of Great Britain; they know that they might ſeek

——— in vain
For ſeats, like theſe, beyond the weſtern main."

Davenant, about the cloſe of the laſt century, had ſaid, that when we ſhould have attained the complement of 11,000,000 men, we ſhould be in a ſtate of power to deal with any ſtrength in Europe. "That we have now attained this "complement of men," ſays this uſeful and valuable writer, "cannot admit of much doubt; that we are "in a ſtate of power to deal with any ſtrength in Europe," has been proved by our exertions in the preſent awful conteſt: and I truſt we ſhall long continue, what we now are,

"A land that diſtant tyrants hate in vain."

ART. 38. *Letters from Paris to the Citizens of the United States of America, on the Syſtem of Policy hitherto purſued by their Government, relative to their Commercial Intercourſe with England and France. &c. By Joel Barlow.* 8vo. 116 pp. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1800.

The name of Joel Barlow, once of ſome little celebrity in the liſt of the enemies of order, here returns upon us rather unexpectedly, after a long interval. We ſhall not refuſe to it ſuch attention as it may deſerve. The chief object of the firſt of theſe Letters is, to recommend to the American States the maintenance of their ſyſtem of neutrality, and the preſervation of a free trade, by a new mode of repriſal on all European nations who ſhall moleſt it. Mr. Joel propoſes "a ſolemn declaration and definition of the rights of neutrality, and a notification" (on the part of the American States) "of their intention,

intention, that all property taken unjuſtly from their citizens, by any power at war, ſhould be compenſated by ſo much property of the ſubjects of that power found within their juriſdiction, whether in the public funds, or in the hands of private debtors." He endeavours to anſwer the obvious objections to ſuch a meaſure, by denying, in the firſt place, that it will prevent the American merchants from obtaining ſufficient credit abroad; and, ſecondly, (as to the objection that it would be diſhonourable) that it is not more diſhonourable than the uſual mode "of fitting out armed veſſels, and making repriſals on the property of the nation that has committed the violence." It cannot be expected, that we ſhould enter into much diſcuſſion of ſuch a propoſal, from ſuch a ſource. The American government appears to have thought differently from Mr. Joel Barlow; and, as to the firſt point, it may reaſonably be queſtioned whether, notwithſtanding the alledged readineſs of Britiſh manufacturers (for nothing is ſaid as to thoſe of any other country) to give credit to American merchants, ſuch a declaration would not produce a change in their inclinations and practice. As to the point of *honour*, or (as Mr. B. objects to that term) *good faith*, we think it clear, that the credit given by the ſubjects of one ſtate to thoſe of another, reſts on the ſecurity which the laws give to foreign creditors. At all events, it is highly unjuſt, that any creditor ſhould be affected by the conſequences of a ſuch a declaration, excepting thoſe who have given credit after the declaration took place.

Mr. B. in this, and his ſecond, Letter to his countrymen, goes into a variety of other topics, principally relating to American politics and finance. In this part we meet, of courſe, with all the hacknied Jacobinical opinions, and the dreams, of modern republican philoſophers. That a citizen of America ſhould be a republican in principle, cannot be matter of ſurpriſe or blame; but that a *ſincere* Republican ſhould imagine (or ſhould have imagined, in the year 1799) that the French Revolution, and others which it has occaſioned, are likely to terminate in favour of general liberty, or that "it is owing to the prolongation of revolutionary meaſures, neceſſitated by the ſtate of Europe," that France has not reduced her theory of liberty to practice, would be ſcarcely credible, if we did not know how many perſons in France (and we fear in America) fancy themſelves Republicans, when they are, in reality, ſupporters of the worſt kind of arbitrary power.

The Letter to General Waſhington, on his nomination to the command of the American army, attempts to perſuade him, and through him his countrymen, that the French Directory were "ſincerely deſirous of reſtoring harmony between that country and the United States, on terms advantageous to both parties." The reaſons for this opinion ſhow, indeed, that the five Gallic tyrants thought they had, in this attempt to bully and fleece the Americans, gone a little too far, and that they were then attempting to cajole them; but much ſtronger proofs (if indeed any proofs could countervail their infamous treatment of the American envoys) were neceſſary to ſhow that ſuch men had at length become converts to juſtice and moderation.

After *praiſing* the care of a London publiſher, to preſent theſe *valuable* Letters to his countrymen, we ſhall only add, on the general to-

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pies of Mr. B.'s Letters, that we wiſh, as heartily as he can, to ſee a ſyſtem of univerſal peace and freedom of commerce eſtabliſhed in the world. But we are far from thinking that ſuch improvements can be effected by the means he recommends, combined as they are with the Jacobin ſyſtem of univerſal revolution.

ART. 39. *Further Thoughts on the preſent State of public Opinion. Being a Continuation of a timely Appeal to the common Senſe of the People of Great Britain in General, and of the Inhabitants of Buckinghamſhire in particular, on the preſent Situation of Affairs. By J. Penn, Eſq.* 8vo. 185 pp. 4s. Hatchard. 1800.

We always wiſh to ſpeak favourably of works manifeſtly written with the beſt intentions, and directed to the public good; and we think the country highly obliged to gentlemen of cultivated talents, and independent fortunes, who employ their leiſure in obviating the cenſures of modern innovators on our civil or religious polity. This, however, forms but a ſmall part of the treatiſe before us; though it ſeems to be the principal and ultimate object of the reſpectable author. For he ſets out, and concludes with condemning the ſpirit of cenſure, prevalent in the writings of Voltaire and others; and the intermediate parts of the tract (which conſiſt chiefly of a defence of Mr. Burke's opinions of the ſublime and beautiful) are meant, if we rightly comprehend them, to apply in juſtification of the concluſion. In this application, and indeed in the work in general, we think the author too refined, and frequently obſcure. Though we perceive the *general* object of his reaſonings, we do not always feel the force of them. Thoſe remarks, however, which apply more immediately to ſubjects of taſte, are often ingenious, and, to literary men, may be amuſing. But Mr. P. muſt be more perſpicuous and leſs prolix, before he can expect to excite general attention and intereſt.

SCARCITY.

ART. 40. *Strictures on the true Cauſe of the preſent alarming Scarcity of Grain, and other Proviſions; and a Plan for permanent Relief: humbly ſubmitted to public Conſideration. By Alexander Anneſley. With an Hiſtorical Deduction of the Prices of Proviſions; interſperſed with various Matters connected with the Commerce and Navigation of Great Britain. Together with a Chronological Account of the ſeveral Statutes, Proclamations, and Parliamentary Regulations, for controuling the Markets, and preventing Monopoly, Engroſſing, &c. &c. From the Norman Conqueſt to the preſent Æra. Dedicated to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer.* 8vo. 79 pp. 2s. Murray and Highley. 1800.

A few words in the Dedication of this tract prepared us to expect a conſiderable degree of prejudice in the writer. "*Famine*, in the midſt of *plenty!* Scarcity, at a time of *unequalled exuberance!* And *factitious dearth*, in ſpite of *ſuperior fecundity!* now threaten us with all

all their concomitant horrors!" P. vii. Two or three quotations will exhibit the author's ſentiments on the ſubjects propoſed in the title-page, and will probably meet with concurrence from very few readers. "I ſhall, without further circumlocution, proceed to ſtate my plan for the permanent relief; one part of which is, to pay a bounty of five ſhillings per quarter upon the firſt two millions of quarters of new wheat that the farmers ſhall bring to, and *bonâ fide* diſpoſe of, in open market, in their reſpective vicinity. And no grain or other ſpecies of proviſion ſhould, on any account, be permitted to be ſold, or any contract whatever relating to grain, or other ſpecies of proviſions, be deemed valid, but ſuch as are made with the utmoſt publicity in the open market. And to prevent monopoly, it would be adviſeable to ſubject all grain (if not other proviſions) *to the operation of the exciſe laws!*" P. 23. "It would be ſeen in a ſhort ſpace of time, whether the dearth is real or fictitious. And if it ſhould happen that wheat, by the adoption of this meaſure (of which there cannot remain a doubt) ſhould be reduced to 60s. per quarter, in that caſe I ſhould humbly ſubmit that government ſhould become purchaſers of at leaſt two million of quarters of wheat, to be ſtored in public granaries or magazines, agreeably to the practice and cuſtom of many European ſtates, in order to meet future exigencies." P. 24. The firſt effect of ſuch a meaſure would probably be, the converſion of half the arable land in the kingdom into paſture. "The expence of management of the public granaries or magazines of corn, muſt, for a time, be ſupported by government; but the neighbouring magiſtrates, agreeably to the practice of other European ſtates, ſhould have the controul of the buſineſs; that is to ſay, the whole arrangement ſhould be made under the direction of *five* juſtices of the peace of the vicinity, three of whom to form a quorum, in order to give a legal ſanction to their meaſures. Theſe magiſtrates, aided by certain commiſſioners, to be nominated for that purpoſe from among the neighbouring independent freeholders, ſhould be impowered, aſſiſted by the corn-inſpectors, to make the purchaſes." P. 27. Mr. A. ſeems to be unapprized, that in moſt diſtricts of the kingdom, there is at leaſt as great a *ſcarcity* of reſident acting magiſtrates, as of grain; and that the cares already impoſed, and continually accumulating upon them, are not likely to make them more plentiful.

"If *government* were, either in conjunction with the proprietors, or by purchaſing ſuch waſtes in fee (where it might be practicable) to take them *in* their own hands, and apportion out the waſtes in moderate-ſized farms, it would become a reſource to the nation of ineſtimable value." P. 34.

Extravagant as theſe ſchemes may appear, the book contains much hiſtorical information, and many acute obſervations; and is evidently written with a ſtrong deſire to promote the public good.

ART. 41. *Inquiry into the Cauſes and Remedies of the late and preſent Scarcity, and High Price of Proviſions. In a Letter to the Right Hon. Earl Spencer, K. G. Firſt Lord of the Admiralty, &c. &c. &c.* 8vo. 71 pp. 2s. Wright. 1800.

In this enquiry, the author begins by fetching light from the experience of paſt times. There has been no famine (he ſays) in this country, for more than 350 years, though frequent inſtances of ſcarcity and dearth. Famines were frequent before the Norman Conqueſt; and ſince, till near the end of the Plantagenet race of kings. It appears, that famines never occurred, except after bad ſeaſons; and that the evil was, probably, ſometimes augmented by impolitic inſtitutions and regulations; ſuch as, a prohibition againſt tranſporting corn from one part of the country to another; and (in one inſtance) a limitation of the price of proviſions, to which ſome hiſtorians aſcribe the famine of the following year.

An enquiry is then inſtituted, into the circumſtances which expoſed former ages (particularly the 14th century) to famine, and its uſual concomitant, peſtilence.

1. The low ſtate of agriculture: "It appears that, in the 13th and 14th centuries, corn ſold for more than three times as much as the ſame weight of butchers meat." P. 5.

2. "A more ſcanty production, in proportion to the number and neceſſities of the conſumers, owing to the more ſimple manners of the times." P. 6.—"The quantity of grain employed, in latter times, in brewing, diſtilling, feeding of horſes, and other articles of unneceſſary conſumption, becomes a ſort of diſpoſeable ſurplus; ſo that, in times of ſcarcity, great part of it may be turned into the channels of neceſſity. It is evident, then, however paradoxical it may at firſt ſight appear, that luxury, or what by ſome may be called waſte, is one of the reſources againſt famine." P. 7.—"However expedient and commendable, therefore, it may be, in times of ſcarcity, to make retrenchments in articles of luxury, it would be highly impolitic and dangerous to make ſuch retrenchments perpetual." P. 7.

3. The want of internal and foreign commerce; which precludes all relief, in caſe of ſcarcity, from one ſeaſon to another, and from one country, and one kingdom, to another.

From theſe remarks on paſt times, the author proceeds to, "inquire into the cauſes of the preſent ſcarcity, and high price of proviſions." P. 12.

The 1ſt. and grand cauſe, ſeems to have been the cold and rainy ſummer and autumn, and the ſcanty and ill-gotten crop of 1799. Having aſſigned this ſingle cauſe, the author digreſſes ſo far, and ſo long, on various topics, that it is much eaſier to ſay that he preſents to us many ingenious and uſeful reflections, concerning farmers, merchants, dealers, &c. than to give an abſtract of them. He next ſtates, but does not ſtrongly inſiſt upon, ſome ſubordinate and ſecondary cauſes of the ſcarcity; as, the depreciation of money; the war; (which he maintains does not increaſe the conſumption one 36th part) agriculture not keeping pace with population and manufactures; the proſe-

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cution of foreſtallers; and the aſſize of bread: on which laſt topic we find a few ſhort, but good hints.

We come now to the *remedies* of ſcarcity; of which the firſt is, an extended cultivation; the next, an increaſed culture of potatoes. But as theſe are only remote recourſes, it is propoſed to relieve the preſent diſtreſs by importation; abolition of the aſſize; ſtaying proſecutions of foreſtallers; enforcing the ſtale-bread act; ſtopping the diſtilleries, and the manufacture of ſtarch and hair-powder; and rejecting all expectation of a maximum of price: moſt of which things the legiſlature has actually done.

We have given a ſomewhat extended account of this tract; having found in it many juſt (if not always novel) arguments; and (what is extremely deſirable in this ſeaſon of agitation) a careful abſtinence from all intemperate ſpeculations and language.

ART. 42. *A Sermon, preached at St. Julian's Shrewſbury, on Sunday, December* 14, 1800, *on reading his Majeſty's Proclamation for limiting the Uſe of Bread. By Samuel Butler, M. A. Head-Maſter of Shrewſbury School, and late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.* 12mo. 32 pp. 1s. Eddowes, Shrewſbury; Longman and Rees, London. 1800.

A ſhort Dedication (rather too antithetical for our taſte) is very honourable to Thomas Eyton, Eſq. as *an active friend to the poor*; a character, of which this kingdom now affords examples, at leaſt as numerous and ſplendid, as any ever exhibited in any nation, or in any age. Diſcourſing on Luke xii, 24, "Conſider the ravens," &c. the preacher ſets before his hearers ſuch motives for religious cheerfulneſs, as may tend to diſſipate the gloom of melancholy, and reſtore them to peace of mind. Adverting to a former diſcourſe, concerning the infinite mercy of God, and our own unworthineſs, he juſtly obſerves, "that whatever cauſe for dejection we can have on the latter ground, we have ſtill more abundant reaſon for hope and exultation on the former." P. 6. He then proceeds to ſhow, "why it is our duty to endeavour that we may attain this cheerfulneſs, and to offer ſuch practical conſiderations, reſulting from the ſubject, as are applicable to our preſent ſtate." P. 7. Having well deſcribed the nature of true cheerfulneſs, he, 1ſt, proves that it is a duty which we owe to God; 2ndly, he deduces motives for cheerful reſignation to God's will, from *the relation* in which we ſtand to him, as *Chriſtians*, and as his *children*; 3dly, he ſhows, that "deſpondency under the diſpenſations of Providence, is not only wicked and unreaſonable, but it is the very means to make thoſe afflictions heavier, at which we repine." P. 12. 4thly, Cheerfulneſs is ſhown to be a duty, which we owe to our families, and to ſociety at large. This topic leads to the conſideration, "how we may beſt alleviate the preſent evil." P. 14. At pp. 17, &c. much good and ſound advice, concerning the preſent dearth, is offered to the poor. Had we ſtood at the writer's elbow when he finiſhed this Sermon, we ſhould have adviſed him to draw his pen over the laſt five lines; and ſhould then have congratulated him, on having completed a very well-timed and uſeful diſcourſe.

ART. 43. *Thoughts on the preſent Prices of Proviſions, their Cauſes, and Remedies; addreſſed to all Ranks of People. By an independent Gentleman.* 8vo. 87 pp. Reynolds, Oxford-Street. 1800.

The principal cauſe here aſſigned, is not any actual Scarcity, but the avarice and extortion of *farmers*; and the grand ſpecific propoſed is a maximum, to be fixed by juſtices of the peace. This is the moſt injudicious and unſatisfactory tract, which we have ſo far met with, on the Scarcity.

ART. 44. *A ſhort Enquiry into the Nature of Monopoly and Foreſtalling. A Third Edition, with conſiderable Additions. By Edward Morris, Eſq. Barriſter at Law.* 8vo. 54 pp. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

We commended this tract very ſtrongly, on its firſt appearance, at p. 62, of the 9th volume of our Review; and we wiſh again to fix the public attention upon it, as containing a very conciſe, argumentative, and temperate diſcuſſion of thoſe ſubjects, which our preſent viſitation of Scarcity has rendered ſo highly intereſting.

ART. 45. *An Inveſtigation of the Cauſe of the preſent High Price of Proviſions. By the Author of the Eſſay on the Principle of Population.* Second Edition. 8vo. 28 pp. 1s. Johnſon. 1800.

The author of this pamphlet ſuſpects, that the principal cauſe of the high price of proviſions, in proportion to the actual degree of ſcarcity, has hitherto eſcaped detection: (p. 1.) and that this is no other, than "the attempt, in moſt parts of the kingdom, to increaſe the pariſh allowances in proportion to the price of corn, combined with the riches of the country, which have enabled it to proceed as far as it has done in this attempt." P. 4. At pp. 5, 6, 7, this opinion is ſupported by a ſuppoſition, rather ingenious than ſatisfactory. As far as our information enables us to ſpeak, we queſtion the fact of this general increaſe, *in the proportion here ſtated.* A crop of wheat in 1800, deficient by one third, ſucceeding a crop ſtill more deficient, at leaſt in quality, with the very increaſed uſe of fine bread, will account for high prices much more forcibly. We agree, that "in an article (p. 14) which is in ſo many hands as corn is, in this country, monopoly, to any pernicious extent, may ſafely be pronounced impoſſible." Yet, in particular diſtricts, of which the produce is ſcanty, and the acceſs to it difficult, we apprehend that this monopoly may exiſt long enough, to enrich a few, and to ſtarve the reſt of the inhabitants. Differing in opinion, as we do in many points, from this writer, yet we readily acknowledge, that his tract is one of thoſe which deſerve much attention at the preſent juncture.

ART. 46. *The Caſe of the Farmers, at the preſent important Criſis, ſtated by a Hertfordſhire Farmer.* 8vo. 20 pp. 6d. Law. 1800.

Among the pernicious tendencies of many of the Agricultural Surveys lately publiſhed, *one* has repeatedly been noticed by us; namely, a ten-

a tendency to exaſperate the minds of farmers againſt their landlords, for refuſing to grant *long* leaſes. Here is a farmer, or rather (we ſuſpect) a *ſtate-reformer*, who has read the Surveys attentively, and has been duly *improved* by them. Moſt curious is the exordium of this tract: "The afflicted and oppreſſed *African* has found advocates: but the oppreſſed and inſulted *farmers of this iſland* are left to their fate: oppreſſion will make a man mad; and that the farmers of England are oppreſſed, muſt be admitted;—a ſet of men whoſe hands are bound, and whoſe feet are in fetters,—manacled ſlaves,—doomed to a ſtate of humiliating abjectneſs to the will of another, that degrades the *dignity of the human mind.*" The Surveys are appealed to, in proof of this; and not without reaſon; for ſuch are, in many caſes, the intimations contained in them. But in what conſiſts all this oppreſſion? Why, in the refuſal of land-owners to grant *long* leaſes, upon *liberal* terms; and in degrading, unneceſſary, and illiberal *reſtrictions.*"—"In caſes where leaſes are granted, they generally run for five, ſeven, or nine years endurance only: nineteen years, or twenty-one, may be conſidered as the maximum." And pray, honeſt *farmer*, for how much longer time, would you *inſiſt upon* a landlord's reſigning to you his eſtate; which you would probably *re-leaſe*, by ſome device or other, before half of the term ſhould expire? When the London ſeditious-ſocieties, in the ſummer of 1798, had their emiſſaries at work throughout the villages of the kingdom, one tract of this ſort for the uſe of farmers, another of the ſame ſtamp for their labourers, and a third for the poor in general, (all which might have been extracted from the County Surveys) would have operated ſtrongly towards a general tranſfer of landed, and all other property, from the old to new maſters.

ART. 47. *An Addreſs to the good Senſe and Candour of the People, in Behalf of the Dealers in Corn: with ſome few Obſervations on a late Trial for Regrating: by Sir Thomas Turton, Bart. The Second Edition, with a Poſtſcript.* 8vo. 189 pp. 3s. 6d. Egerton, &c. 1800.

A very eloquent harangue in defence of farmers, corn-dealers, monopolizers, *atque id genus omne.* There is ſuch a profuſion of words in this oration, that we cannot eaſily pick out the matter from among them. But the purport of the whole is to ſhow, that combinations of farmers to hoard their corn, or of dealers to monopolize it, are utterly impracticable; that the general profits of the latter are overrated; and that they who keep back corn from the market, during the early months after harveſt, are, in fact, whatever may be their intention, real benefactors to the public: ſince, by producing a temporary ſcarcity, and conſequently high prices, they compel the people to economy in the uſe of corn; and thus prevent, during the latter months, an actual famine. Though we are not prepared to aſſent to all which is here urged in favour of theſe gentry, yet we acknowledge that they have found, in this worthy Baronet, a very acute, entertaining, and able advocate,

PHI-

PHILOSOPHY.

ART. 48. *An Account of the Irides, or Coronæ, which appear around, and contiguous to the Bodies of the Sun, Moon, and other luminous Objects.* 8vo. 46 pp. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

Four principal ſorts of Irides, or Coronæ, ſuch as are frequently formed in the clouds and vapours of the atmoſphere, round the bodies of the ſun, moon, &c. are mentioned in this ſhort eſſay; namely, 1. Thoſe which conſiſt of many coloured circles contiguous to the bodies of the ſun and moon; 2. The Iris of 45° in diameter, which has the ſun or moon in its centre; 3. and 4. The two rainbows, whoſe diameters are about 84° and 100°, and which appear oppoſite to the luminous body that produces them.

With reſpect to the explanation of thoſe phænomena, this author (of whoſe name we know only the initials, viz. G. W. J. which are ſigned at the end of the tract) obſerves that the principles, upon which the firſt depends, have been diſcovered only within theſe few years; and for thoſe principles he refers the reader to a work entitled *New Obſervations concerning the Inflections of Light*, which, we have ſome reaſon to believe, was written by himſelf; and of which due notice has been taken in a former number of the Britiſh Critic.

The ſecond, he thinks, has not been ſatisfactorily explained; but he allows that ſome ſucceſsful approaches have been made towards an explanation of the other two; namely, of the primary and ſecondary rainbows.

This deſcription of theſe appearances is followed by a ſtatement of their various breadths, which were meaſured by means of a ſextant. "The general reſult of many obſervations and meaſurements was, that moſt frequently the breadth of the firſt order was rather more than forty-five minutes, or once and a half the breadth of the moon's diſc; the ſecond not ſo broad; the third leſs broad than the ſecond; and the fourth leſs broad than any."

Several pages of this tract are employed in refuting Sir I. Newton's attempt to explain the phænomena in queſtion, after which, "the only true principles of explanation" he ſays "are to be found among thoſe new obſervations concerning the inflections of light before referred to." Theſe he proceeds further to ſtate in pp. 30, 33.

In the ſequel, the above-mentioned explanation is illuſtrated by referring to a diagram in a plate ſubjoined to the tract. To this are added ſeveral particulars, and collateral obſervations, reſpecting the ſame phænomena.

MISCELLANIES.

ART. 49. *The Cambrian Regiſter, for the Year* 1796. *Vol. II.* 8vo. 575 pp. 9s. E. and T. Williams, 11, Strand. 1799.

This work has ſomething of the form, and ſomething of the tardineſs of an Annual Regiſter, yet why it ſhould be annual, it is not eaſy

eaſy to ſay, ſince nineteen twentieths of its contents refer to years long paſt. Its diviſions are, 1. Hiſtory of the very Ancient Britons. 2. Biography of various times. 3. Antiquities. 4. Ancient laws of Wales. 5. Statiſtical accounts written in 1792, &c. 6. Topography. 7. Naval Affairs. 8. Review of Two Books. 9. Letters chiefly of the 17th Century, and early in the 18th. 10. Poetry. 11. Seſſions. Of all theſe articles, the laſt only, which occupies 6 pages out of 575, is particularly applicable to the year of which the book is ſtyled a Regiſter. Conſequently we have much over-done the matter in ſaying, that one twentieth part is what it ought to be, to correſpond with its title. The collections in themſelves are not deſtitute of local intereſt.

ART. 50. *The Annual Hampſhire Repoſitory, or an Hiſtorical, Economical, and Literary Miſcellany; a Provincial Work, of entirely original Materials, compriſing all Matters relative to the County, including the Iſle of Wight, &c. under the following Heads: County Hiſtory, Chronicle, Regiſtry, Navy, Army, Church, Law, Civil and Municipal Affairs, Public Works, Commerce, Schools, State of the Poor, Economy, Charities, Agriculture, Natural Hiſtory, Philoſophy, and Curioſities, Antiquities and Topography, Arts and Sciences, Letters, Biography, Projects, Miſcellanies, Notices to Correſpondents, &c. &c. Vol. I. to be continued Annually. The whole Work under the Direction of a Conductor, with the Aſſiſtance of regular Contributions, and occaſional Communicators.* 8vo. About 465 pp. Robbins, Wincheſter; White, London, &c. 1799.

This compilation is not liable to the cenſure paſſed upon the preceding. The chief part of its contents are temporary, as well as local: and the inhabitants of the county would probably feel much intereſt in it. Much diligence and ingenuity appears to have been exerted in forming the work: and it contains a good deal of poetry, though none is promiſed in the long enumeration of the title-page.

ART. 51. *Repreſentation of the Millers in the Vicinity of London, againſt a Bill now pending in Parliament, intitled, "A Bill to incorporate certain Perſons by the Name of the London Company for the Manufacture of Flour, Meal, and Bread. With an Appendix.* Folio. 36 pp. 2s. Richardſons, &c. 1800.

The Bill, here remonſtrated againſt, having paſſed into a law (and we hope it will prove a ſalutary one) it is ſufficient to ſay of this tract, that it is drawn up with acuteneſs and plauſibility. We muſt note, however, a remarkable contradiction betwixt the ſeveral declarations of theſe millers at different periods. In the year 1784, when a charter was refuſed to the *Albion Mill Company;* who perſiſted in their undertaking, "without the aid of a charter," theſe worthy gentlemen "reſolved unanimouſly, that the carrying on the ſaid ſcheme and undertaking tended to a monopoly of a very alarming nature; and that the uniting of ſo many perſons concerned in intereſt together, would, by means of the capital propoſed to be employed by them, and the extenſive

extenſive powers of their works, be enabled to buy up, and manufacture weekly, ſuch a large proportion of all the Britiſh wheat brought to the port of London, as frequently to govern the price thereof." P. 35. But, in the preſent year, their tone is lowered; and they ſay, "the millers have no right, nor will they ever preſume, to obſtruct the ſpeculations of perſons who may think proper to enter into any, or all the branches of the flour-trade." P. 1.

ART. 52. *Picture of Palermo; by Dr. Hager. Tranſlated from the German, by Mrs. Mary Robinſon.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Philips. 1800.

This we underſtand to have been the laſt publication of the ingenious, but unfortunate, tranſlator. Dr. Hager has conſiderable reputation as a man of ingenuity and learning; and this little ſketch of Palermo is agreeable and intereſting. The Advertiſement ſtates, that it has been read with *much avidity* in the native language. It may be ſo; but there ſeems to us nothing in the work itſelf, or the tranſlation, to juſtify *avidity*. There is a neat frontiſpiece, exhibiting a ſketch of Sicily.

ART. 53. *A Selection of the Lives of Plutarch abridged, containing the moſt illuſtrious Characters of Antiquity; for the Uſe of Schools. By William Mavor, LL. D. Vicar of Hurley, &c. &c.* 12mo. 4s. 6d. Philips. 1800.

We have often commended the labours of this unwearied author, in behalf of the riſing generation. This work is no leſs entitled to praiſe, nor at all leſs calculated to obtain and facilitate the end propoſed, than the numerous publications of Dr. Mavor, which have been noticed on various occaſions by the Britiſh Critic.

ART. 54. *The modern Traveller; Vol. I. containing the compreſſed Travels of Mungo Park. Vol. II. thoſe of Ledyard, Lucas, and Sonnini, in Africa. Vol. III. thoſe of Browne, Savary, and Volney. And, Vol. IV. containing thoſe of Vaillant in Africa.* 12mo. Wright. 12s. 1800.

Theſe are modeſtly called compreſſed Travels, but nothing of material importance appears to have been omitted. We much approve of this publication, which will prove an acceptable companion to the Travels publiſhed by Dr. Mavor, which we have before commended. A very good map of Africa is prefixed, upon which the routes of the different travellers are delineated. This publication has alſo the merit of being well and perſpicuouſly printed.

ART. 55. *Marengo, or the Campaign of Italy, by the Army of Reſerve, under the Command of the Chief Conſul Bonaparte. Tranſlated from the French of Joſeph Petit, Horſe-Grenadier in the Conſular Guard; with a Map of the North-Weſt Part of Italy, ſhewing the Route of the Army. To which is added, a biographical Notice of the Life and Military Actions of General Deſaix. By C. Foudras.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1800.

From two French pamphlets the tranſlator has contrived to make one, which, conſidering the importance of the ſubject it profeſſes to diſcuſs, will

will probably have ſome degree of circulation. The reader will, however, do well to remember, that the narrator of the firſt part aims at no higher character than a horſe-grenadier. General Deſaix appears to have deſerved what is here ſaid of him; we underſtand he was both a gallant officer, and a man of amiable private character.

ART. 56. *An hiſtorical and practical Eſſay on the Commerce and Culture of Tobacco. By William Tatham.* 8vo. 330 pp. 7s. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

"Having lately ſeen a few plants of American Tobacco growing caſually in a gentleman's garden near London, and perceiving that very little is generally known in Europe concerning the hiſtory and ordinary culture of an article of commerce, which has occupied a conſiderable capital in tranſatlantic traffic for about two hundred years; and indeed a plant which is peculiarly adapted for *an agricultural compariſon of elements*; without entering ſo far into the ſubject as to conſider it a ſtaple produce of the nation, I beg leave to communicate a few particulars in reſpect to the hiſtory and culture of this luxuriant commodity, which I am enabled to ſtate from authorities, and from what I recollect to have noticed during twenty years reſidence in Virginia, where it is a principal export."

The author then handles, in ſix diſtinct parts, 1. The botanical Deſcription, and the Culture of Tobacco. 2. The Manner of Houſing, Curing, &c. in Virginia. 3. The public Warehouſe and Inſpection. 4. The Progreſs of the Culture and Commerce of Tobacco. 5. Of the Tobacco-Trade of Great-Britain. 6. Culture and Commerce, according to Mr. Anderſon. He profeſſes to have been compelled by time and circumſtances to curtail his book for the preſent; but promiſes a ſupplementary volume, if encouraged by public approbation. The work contains four well-executed plates; the firſt coloured, and repreſenting the flower, leaf, and botanical characters of Tobacco; 2, the tobacco worm or caterpillar, and its moth, alſo coloured; 3, the tobacco-houſe, and its vicinity; 4, the conveyance of it to market. Mr. Tatham has certainly collected already a great abundance of materials; and we do not very well anticipate what can be reſerved for his ſupplementary volume.

ART. 57. *The Teacher's Aſſiſtant in Engliſh Compoſition; or eaſy Rules for writing Themes, and compoſing Exerciſes, on Subjects proper for the Improvement of Youth of both Sexes at School. By John Walker, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c.* 12mo. 212 pp. 3s. 6d. Robinſons, Cadell and Davies, &c. 1801.

There is no exerciſe in which young perſons ſucceed at firſt ſo ill, nor any in which it is ſo difficult to give them aſſiſtance, without doing their work for them, as the compoſition of themes. Mr. Walker finding, by experience, the want of ſome book tending rationally to theſe ends, has been led gradually to compoſe one; and few perſons will doubt, on hearing the author's name, that the taſk has been executed with judgment. He begins with the common general rules of dividing the ſubject, and then proceeds to give a great variety of exemplifications. Teachers will find much real aſſiſtance in the uſe of this work.

FOREIGN

FOREIGN CATALOGUE.

FRANCE.

ART. 58. *De l'influence des paſſions ſur l'ame dans les maladies, et des moyens d'en corriger les mauvais effets, par* C. J. Tiſſot, *Médecin des armées françaiſes.* Paris and Straſburg. 296 pp. in 8vo.

The author begins by exhibiting to us a picture of the moral man in the ſtate of health and of ſickneſs; he afterwards ſhows what are the paſſions which characterize every conſtitution; what belong to different ages, and what are peculiar to women; thoſe which the various conditions and ſituations in life either produce, or modify, &c. In the *third part*, he treats of the means which may tend to correct the bad effects of the different affections of the mind. The author then gives rules for diſcovering their moral cauſes; pointing out likewiſe the choice, the direction, and, if we may be allowed to uſe the expreſſion, the amalgamation of the phyſical and moral aids. We ſhall quote a fragment from the Introduction, calculated to give an idea of his plan, and of his views.

" L'homme vivant ſous le domaine des paſſions eſt, ſi on permet l'expreſſion, un inſtrument à cordes, qui frémit ſous l'archet et rend des vibrations plus ou moins fortes, plus ou moins durables. La tenſion et le relâchement alternatifs de la corde; voilà tout le myſtère de la formation des différens tons: c'eſt le même mécaniſme dans les corps animés.

" Dans toutes les paſſions, je ne vois qu'un mouvement imprimé à la fibre, en vertu duquel elle ſe hauſſe ou ſe baiſſe: auſſi n'y a-t-il aucun doute qu'il n'exiſte un régime propre a exciter les paſſions, comme il en eſt un pour les modérer. Tout l'art conſiſtera, dans le premier cas, à donner à la fibre ce degré de ton qui la rend plus ſenſible et plus active; comme dans le ſecond, à diminuer de ſon énergie: et voilà la médecine des paſſions toute faite.

" Le corps a-t-il reçu une ſecouſſe vive de la part de l'ame, toutes les cordes ſont-elles tendues? Il faut délayer, tempérer, détendre par tous les moyens poſſibles. La fibre bien abreuvée, bien aſſouplie, n'aura plus cette réaction qui entretient le mouvement d'abord imprimé par l'ame, et les impreſſions s'affoibliront inſenſiblement comme ces ondulations circulaires que la chûte d'un corps dans l'eau a fait naître.

" Les paſſions, au contraire, ont-elles occaſionné dans la machine un affaiſſement, une ſorte de découragement? Il faut réveiller le jeu des organes, développer un feu qui alloit s'éteindre, ſtimuler en un mot et redonner, pour ainſi dire, à l'ame une nouvelle exiſtence, en changeant l'état d'un corps qui paroiſſoit lui devenir étranger.

" Quelquefois il ne faut pas ſe borner à agir ſur le phyſique de l'homme, il faut s'emparer un quelque façon de ſon moral et lui faciliter

ter l'échange d'une paſſion contre une autre. Comme dans le médecine et la chirurgie on ne guérit ſouvent une maladie qu'en en ſubſtituant une autre, de même dans le traitement des affections morales, il faut quelquefois détruire les paſſions les unes par les autres."

This work, which appears to be of importance to profeſſional perſons, may likewiſe be uſeful to others, who either already poſſeſs a power over their imagination, or who wiſh to acquire it. But the author ſeems to us to make man too much of a machine.

Spectat. du Nord.

ART. 59. *Correſpondance de* Louis-Philippe-Joſeph d'Orleans, *avec* Louis XVI., la Reine, Mont-Morin, Liancour, Biron, Lafayette, &c. *avec des détails ſur ſon exil à Villers-Cotterets et ſur la conduite qu'il a tenu aux 5 et 6 Octobre, écrite par lui; ſuivie de ſes lettres à ſa femme, à ſes enfans, et de celles de Mme. de* Genlis, *auxquelles on a joint un extrait du journal du fils aîné d'*Orleans, *écrit jour par lui même. Publiée par* L. C. R. Pr. 4 fr. Paris, An. 9.

The object of the editor in publiſhing this Correſpondence, was not, as he has obſerved in the Introduction, to give the hiſtory of *d'Orleans*, nor that of what is called his faction, but to fix the wavering, and hitherto uncertain, opinion in regard to this perſonage. His own he expreſſes as follows: "Depuis l'aurore de la révolution, le nom de d'Orleans eſt dans toutes les bouches, et je n'ai vu perſonne qui pût dire avec quelque fondement cet homme avoit tel but. L'opinion vulgaire portoit ſon ambition juſqu'à s'emparer du trône; pour moi, j'oſe dire que je n'en crois rien. Je penſe bien que certains perſonnages, qui ont joué de grands rôles dans l'aſſemblée conſtituante, ont voulu lui inſpirer ce déſir; mais je ſuis perſuadé que l'envie de ſe venger du roi et des mépris de la reine, a été le principal mobile de ſes actions. D'ailleurs, à moins que l'on ne l'eût porté ſur le trône, il n'auroit jamais eu le courage d'y monter lui-même."

This collection is divided into two parts. The firſt contains the political correſpondence of *d'Orleans*; the ſecond, his particular correſpondence. His letters to the king are filled with proteſtations of the moſt reſpectful attachment. He takes particular pains to clear himſelf, in the others, from the charge urged againſt him of having been concerned in the buſineſs of the 5th and 6th of October, and of having contributed, either by himſelf or by his agents, to the troubles that agitated France.

In his particular correſpondence, the political principles of *d'Orleans* are fully diſplayed; in theſe, he wiſhed his children ſhould be educated. Hence his diſſatisfaction with his wife, whoſe political opinions did not agree with his; hence his connection with Mme *de Sillery*, to whom he entruſted the education of his children. An idea of the principles which this celebrated woman gave them, may be formed from the journal of the eldeſt ſon of *d'Orleans*, which concludes the work. *Ibid.*

ART. 60. *Des Signes et de l'art de penſer, conſidérés dans leurs rapports mutuels; par Mr.* Dégérando. Paris.

Science naturally preſents itſelf to us under two different aſpects; the obſervations which form its principles; and the rules which direct

us in the application of them. The latter ſerves to convince us of the utility of our labour, and the former of its ſolidity. Accordingly, the author has divided his work into two parts; the *firſt* is intended to ſhow how the human mind has arrived at the point where it now is; the *ſecond*, to examine what it may hereafter be, and what reforms its proceſſes ſtill require. The firſt part is the only one that has yet been given to the public, forming the ſubject of the two firſt volumes.

The hiſtory of ideas, and of the correſponding ſigns, are naturally divided into two very diſtinct epochs; the firſt comprehends the creation of all the ſpecies of ideas, and the inſtitution of all the ſpecies of ſigns; the ſecond treats of the uſe which the mind makes of theſe ideas, and of theſe ſigns, when they are once in its power. Thus the phyſiologiſt begins by deſcribing the different parts of the body, and by explaining their formation, paſſing afterwards to the ſtudy of their functions, and of their relations.

Theſe two epochs give occaſion to the diviſion of the firſt part of the work into two ſections; one of which treats of ideas and ſigns, conſidered in their origin and their formation, while the other exhibits them in thoſe operations, of which they become the cauſe, the means, or the ſubject.

We are encouraged to expect a ſecond part of this very valuable and ingenious work. In it the author propoſes to diſcuſs the different means of improvement, of which language will admit. After having followed him through his hiſtory, he will favour us with his prophecy. There is no ſcience which is not ſuſceptible of being preſented under theſe two different points of view. But to acquire this right of prediction, we ought, like the author, to have obſerved much. The ſecret of the future is in the paſt, and it is there only that a perſon of ſound judgment and reflection will attempt to ſeek for it. *Ibid.*

GERMANY.

ART. 61. Caroli Davidis Ilgenii, *Philoſ. et LL. OO. Prof. in Acad. Jen. P. O. et Soc. Lat. Jen. Sodal. hon. Opuſcula varia philologica. Tomus primus*, 331 pp. *Tomus ſecundus*, 116 pp. 8vo. Pr. 1 Rixd. 12 gr. Erfurt.

This collection, the different articles of which had before been ſeparately publiſhed, and deſervedly approved, conſiſts of the following pieces: 1. Leonidæ *Tarentini Epigramma in Venerem Anadyomenen, Peëſeos ejus Specimen*, 1785; 2. *Chorus Græcorum tragicus qualis fuerit, et quare uſus ejus hodie revocari nequeat*, 1788; 3. *Neſtore feliciſſimi ſenis exemplo* Homerum *non magis del ctare quam prodeſſe*, 1789; 4. Elpenoren Homeri *et alia peëſeos mendicorum Græcorum Specimina cum nonnullis noſtri temporis carminibus ex hoc genere comparata*; 5. *De imbre lapideo et Solis ac Lunæ mora inter pugnam Iſraelitarum ſub* Joſuæ *auſpiciis cum Amorræis*; 6. Hermeſianactis *Elegiarum ſcriptoris celeberrimi Fragmentum ab* Athen. *L. XIII. p.* 597 *ſervatum, emendatius editum et animadverſionibus illuſtratum*, Lipſ. 1790, greatly improved in this reimpreſſion; and,

and, lastly, 7. *Animadversiones historicæ et criticæ in* Ciceronis *orationem pro* Archia *poëta*, Lipsi. 1793. *Jena ALZ.*

ART. 62. 1. Luciani *Samosatensis Quæstio, Quomodo historia sit scribenda, Græce. Selectis aliorum suisque annotationibus illustravit, et indicem vocabulorum ac rerum adjecit M.* Augustus Frider. Wilh. Rudolphus, *Ord. Philos. in Acad. Viteberg. Adjunctus et Acad. Bibliothecar.* xxii. and 166 pp. *in* l. 8vo. Leipzig.

ART. 63. 2. Λουκιανου Σαμοσατεως απαντα. Luciani *Samosatensis opera omnia, maxime ex fide Cod. Paris. recensita, edidit* Frideric. Schmieder, *Philos. D. AA. LL. Mag. Gymnasii Luther. Hal. Collega. Tom. I.* xlviii. and 638 pp. in l. 8vo. Pr. 3 Rixd. Halle, 1800.

In the first of these articles, intended for the purpose of academical lectures, the text adopted by Mr. *R.* is generally that of the Amsterdam edition, though not without frequent corrections of typographical errata, and of the punctuation. On the selection of various readings with which this edition is accompanied, he expresses himself thus: *In afferenda lectionis varietate non id secutus sum ut optimas solas adjicerem; ita potius quamque attuli, ut quæque earum mihi maxime occasionem præbere videbatur de lectionum origine et pretio differendi.* In the opinions given of their comparative merit, considerable erudition and judgment are shown. The other part of the notes is illustrative, and borrowed, in a great measure, from the edition of *Reizius*. Mr. *R.* has, however, availed himself of *Wieland's* translation, and not unfrequently thrown new light upon obscure passages, by an improved or different version of his own. The Indexes will likewise be found to be very copious and useful, and to the whole is prefixed a learned and interesting Introduction, giving an account of the writer's plan and object in the composition of this Treatise, as well as of the authorities to which he refers, and of the authors, still extant, from whose works this may be elucidated, or whom he appears to have imitated; among whom, we often meet with *Aristophanes*. *Ibid.*

In No. 2, we have every thing valuable in the Bipontine edition of *Lucian*, and in the numerous editions of separate parts of the works of this author, which have been published within the last ten years, brought together by a person who must be acknowledged to be highly qualified for the undertaking; and who has made a very judicious use of a large accession of new materials, with which he was provided. *Ibid.*

ART. 64. *Plan pour faire servir les voyages à la culture des jeunes-gens qui se vouent au service de l'état dans la carrière, politiques, accompagné d'un précis historique de l'usage de voyager et d'une table pour faciliter les observations statistiques et politiques; le tout suivi de l'esquisse d'une portefeuille à l'usage des voyageurs et de celle d'une carte de statistique; avec le portrait de l'auteur.* Vienne, in 4to. 108 pp.

The Dedication to this work is equally simple and interesting: *A Charles François Duc de Giovanne, par sa Mère.*

In the Introduction, the author, who has distinguished herself by other approved pieces, gives a *Précis historique de l'usage de voyager*, in which she observes, that the Greeks were the first travellers who had

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pour but déterminé l'inſtruction générale où particulière. Among thoſe which were undertaken by the Phenicians, the Egyptians, the Perſians, the Greeks, the Carthaginians, the Romans, ſhe diſtinguiſhes the expedition of Scylax, who followed the courſe of the Indus to the place where it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea; the voyage of Dionyſius of Carax into the interior of Aſia; the expedition of Hanno beyond the pillars of Hercules; that of Druſus, the firſt of the Roman Generals who ſailed on the northern ſea; that of Agricola to the Orcades; the voyages of the Emperors Trajan and Adrian; of the Conſul Arrian, &c. &c. Theſe voyages of diſcovery are not connected with the author's plan, any more than many philoſophical or literary voyages, of which ſhe finds numerous examples among the ancients, and ſtill more among the moderns. She propoſes a courſe of inſtruction for young perſons intending to travel; which has, indeed, been realized at Göttingen within the laſt twenty years; thanks to the zeal and talents of ſome Profeſſors there, particularly of the celebrated *Schlözer*. "Voyager," ſays ſhe, "c'eſt étudier les choſes et les hommes par la pratique; c'eſt lire dans le grand livre du monde; mais il faut avoir appris à y lire."

The preparatory ſtudies which the author recommends to perſons who propoſe to travel, are agriculture and rural economy in general; the hiſtory of the ſciences and of the arts, both liberal and mechanical; hiſtory, properly ſo called; geography, divided into mathematical, phyſical, and political; law; the belles-lettres and fine arts; languages, travelling without which is, according to *Bacon*, "going to ſchool"; drawing, ſo neceſſary to the memory, and to the imagination; muſic, cultivated without paſſion; dancing; riding; fencing; and ſwimming; which ſhould perhaps have taken the lead in this liſt. Of the German univerſities, ſhe obſerves, that "Si les univerſités étoient organiſées par-tout comme elles le ſont en Allemagne et que l'uſage de les fréquenter y fût commun à toutes les claſſes comme dans ce pays, je me ſerois bornée à dire que le jeune-homme devoit n'entreprendre ſes voyages qu'en quittant l'univerſité, et après avoir achevé ſes différens cours. Par la même raiſon, j'ai omis de parler des études des langues mortes, des mathématiques et d'autres que tout jeune homme qui a terminé ſes claſſes eſt cenſé avoir faites préalablement."

In the *ſecond diviſion* of this *firſt part*, the Dutcheſs de G. treats of *the objects which contribute eſſentially to the utility of travel, and of the arrangements which ought to precede it.* "*Homère* et *Fénélon* s'attachent moins à nous repréſenter *Télémaque* entre les mains de la ſageſſe dans ſon enfance et dans ſa première jeuneſſe, que de l'en faire accompagner dans les pays étrangers, parce que cette dernière éducation de l'homme, celle qu'il reçoit du monde, eſt celle qui exige de la part de celui qui l'y guide un ſurcroît de lumière et de prudence." Accordingly, ſhe is here principally occupied with the qualities of the Mentor who is to accompany her young traveller. He is, at any rate, not to be that pedant whoſe picture the great Frederic has amuſed himſelf in drawing, in his epiſtle to Rothemburg on travelling, and who

> "Brutalement ſavant, ſans monde, ſans manières,
> Déplacé dans le ſiècle et manquant de lumières,
> Auroit beſoin lui même, afin qu'on le ſouffrit,
> D'un maître qui daignât raboter ſon eſprit."

The objects propoſed to the obſervation of the young traveller, are the *civil, economical, and political details* of different countries; *the nature of the government; the meaſures taken to maintain the laws; to enſure public ſafety; to prevent crimes; to ſatisfy neceſſity, and diminiſh unhappineſs; cuſtoms and uſages, both civil and religious; public diverſions, particularly the theatres; the beauties of nature; the chef-d'œuvres of art, &c.*

Having ſuggeſted a plan for the obſervation of theſe ſeveral objects, the author treats of the *conduct of the young traveller*, and we may form a judgment of the principles which prevail in this part, from the following invocation, which ſerves as a ſort of prelude to it. "Vertu, fille du ciel, la gloire et le bonheur de l'humanité; toi, par qui l'homme s'élève au plus haut degré de dignité qu'il puiſſe atteindre; où la fortune et la volupté déployent en vain leurs charmes pour le ſéduire; où l'adverſité avec ſon effrayant cortège cherche en vain à l'abattre par ſes coups redoublés; toi, qui fus mon guide par le ſentier pénible que j'ai du ſuivre; oh! ſois auſſi celui de mon fils! Soutiens ſes pas chancelans dans cet âge, où ton appui eſt ſi néceſſaire, ſoit que la fortune nous ſourie, ſoit que le malheur nous menace! Guide également la jeuneſſe à qui je conſacre mes foibles talens, et que la ſainte ardeur que ton culte m'inſpire, anime les préceptes que je lui propoſe pour ſa conduite dans le monde." She thinks, with *Rouſſeau*, that *les voyages pouſſent le naturel vers ſa pente, et achevent de rendre l'homme bon ou mauvais.*

The work is terminated by an advertiſement, concerning the end and uſe of three plates which are annexed to it. The firſt preſents a table of political and ſtatiſtical obſervations, according to the actual ſtate of civilized nations; the ſecond gives an idea of a port-folio, for the uſe of travellers; the third exhibits a ſketch of a ſtatiſtical chart of a monarchic government. The public will be anxious to ſee the additional ſtatiſtical charts promiſed by the Dutcheſs *de Giovanne.*

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We ſhould be unreaſonable, if we were not ſatisfied with the proof ſent by *Mr. Lewis*, that the *Tales of Wonder* are now the property of the publiſher. But, without being uncandid, we may aſk one queſtion—Before they were ſold to him, was not the price enhanced by that ſecond volume which is made up of materials, which, in one part or other, deſerve ſeverally the epithets of Hamlet's World, except the laſt, "vile, ſtale, flat, and *unprofitable?*"

We had not overlooked, nor ſhall forget the two publications mentioned by *Mr. Halloran.* Amidſt the multiplicity of claimants for notice, ſome muſt wait; and we muſt not allow too much influence even to the handſome compliment of preſenting a book to us. To other Correſpondents deſiring notice, the ſame anſwer may be given.

A Friend

A Friend to candid Criticiſm, will ſee in this month's publication that we are ſtrongly, and not timidly of his opinion.

To the queſtion of our correſpondent at *Hertford*, reſpecting *Poſtlethwaite's Dictionary*, we reply, that we know of no other publication, containing the articles he mentions, in the ſame form.

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

We are very happy in being able to inform the public, that *Mr. Cumberland* will ſoon produce an important book on the Evidences of Religion, entitled *Plain Reaſons for believing in Chriſtianity*.

We are authorized to announce the immediate publication of *Mr. Coxe's Hiſtorical Tour in Monmouthſhire*, which has been long expected.

The ſame author will alſo produce very ſpeedily a new edition of his *Travels in Switzerland*, with an introductory chapter, and hiſtorical notes, relative to the late Revolution, illuſtrated by a map of the new diviſion.

Mr. Nares is about to form a volume of *Tracts*, which he has before publiſhed ſeparately, and ſome original materials.

Mrs. Trimmer will ſoon publiſh an enlarged edition of the *Œconomy of Charity*, adapted to the preſent ſtate of charitable inſtitutions.

Mr. S. Shaw is now finiſhing at the preſs, the ſecond portion of his *Hiſtory of Staffordſhire*.

LITERARY SUGGESTION.

Thoſe literary men who exert their talents in forming uſeful compilations, would, in our opinion, render a very acceptable ſervice to the public, if they would compile a ſort of Pocket Dictionary of remarkable particulars of Nature and Art: compriſing heights and dimenſions of remarkable buildings; heights of mountains; lengths of rivers from their ſources; ſpan of arches; length of canals and aqueducts; circumference of lakes; ditto of parks; heights of columns and obeliſks, &c. &c. for general and eaſy reference.

ERRATUM.

P. 149, fourth line from the bottom, for 5l. 5s. read 1l. 1s.